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ART. I. *Alfred*, an Epic Poem, in Twenty-Four Books. By Joseph Cottle. 4to. pp. 454. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

DURING our perusal of this poem, we have frequently regretted the severity of the laws of Parnassus; which, being modelled on the performances of transcendant genius, are calculated to destroy the pretensions of moderate talents, in this highest species of poetry. When we found the present author, in his preface, attacking the machinery which is deemed necessary to the Epic, and professing to have introduced a more familiar and dramatic style into his work, we could not help wishing that he had intitled it an historical, a moral, a didactic, or any thing but an Epic poem.

The preface contains several opinions to which we cannot assent; and we must particularly notice the following passage:

'The dramatic poet possesses one great advantage over the epic, from having it in his power, by a well-constructed plot, to conceal the final event, and, by the unexpected transition of incidents, to arrest and sustain the attention. The writer of an epic poem, on the contrary, by his exordium, declares the catastrophe: and although this part were to be omitted, yet, the established rule of success in the termination, would leave the reader in no doubt respecting that issue, which, 'till the proper moment arrives, ought not even to be suspected. There is no way of effectually counteracting this evil, but it may be lessened, in some measure, by a recurrence to the dramatic liberty, and the forming of a secondary plot, where the result cannot so well be anticipated, and where the subordinate interest, from possessing novelty, may add vigor to the attention by occasionally relieving it.'

This doctrine may be well calculated for works which will bear only one reading, but it stands in direct opposition to the feelings with which we peruse the great Epic writers. Our pleasure increases as we become familiar with the beauties of Homer, Virgil, and Milton. Curiosity is a subordinate and

trifling sensation, to which they disdained attention. According to Mr. Cottle's canons of criticism, Ariosto would be a greater poet than the Masters of the Epic; for he invented the ingenious method of beginning a story in one canto, *to be concluded* in a subsequent one, which has been so successfully followed by the novellists of our periodical publications.—Mr. Cottle has entirely overlooked the opinions of the best critics, in hastily supposing that the machinery alone is the support of an Epic poem. The representation of manners and passions has ever been allowed to constitute its chief merit; and to this end the machinery has been made subservient; for it has consisted of the popular superstitions of the time. The mythology of Homer was the religion of his country; even Virgil, who lived in a sceptical age, did not exceed the historical marvels with which Livy amused a subsequent race; and our own Milton, in nothing inferior to either of these poets, blended, with genuine enthusiasm, the sanctity of his creed with the fervour of his genius. The supernatural personages in those works, however, are embodied before us; we see and hear them; and we are not permitted, by the force of the illusion, either to doubt or to reason, while the immortals speak in language worthy of their attributes. If more recent writers have failed in equally interesting their readers, the deficiency must not be imputed to the nature of the art, but to the inferiority of the artist.—We do not intend, by these observations, to refer to the Girusalemme, nor to the Lusiad; which, though possessing great beauties, cannot be regarded as perfect models, because their machinery (especially that of the latter) is a mixture of mythology with christianity. The works of Tasso and Camöens were deficient in judgment, not in strength of genius.

Mr. Cottle has thought it proper to ornament his poem with a specimen of the Northern mythology: but he has confined this machinery to the first book, which relates to the Danish preparations for the invasion of Britain, and he has dropped it at the commencement of the action. The remaining part of his work, therefore, is a plain *tale*; not highly elevated above prose, either by imagery or versification. In this undertaking, we see the bad consequences resulting from some hasty opinions lately promulgated, respecting simplicity of diction. We have opposed the recent attempts to despoil poetry of her proper language; and we regret that we are again called to assert the distinction between simplicity and meanness. The charms of a fine thought, like those of a beautiful person, are most touching when they are least ornamented: but the nakedness of a homely figure is disgusting.—

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The rage for poetical innovation forces us to inculcate these trite yet necessary precepts.

We shall now give a short view of Mr. Cottle's fable.

Ivar, the son of Regner Lodbrog, King of Denmark, consults a sorceress previously to his invasion of Britain, and in her cave he is terrified by the goblins of the Northern nations. As it is in this book only that an attempt at poetical imagery is made, we shall present the reader with a specimen of the terrible and the sublime of Mr. Cottle:

> ' The spot on which he stood,
> Was the rude base of a stupendous rock,
> Whose summit, midnight hid; whilst here and there
> The fatal hemlock started, and the roots
> Of living mandrake. " Are we not come near?"
> Cried IVAR; " these most hideous shapes and things,
> It needeth to be one like thee to meet
> Unterrified." They both in silence march'd.
> The torches bright, high in the rifted crag,
> Moved on by hand unseen; 'till to a vault
> Of huge extent and darkness—tenfold more
> Than earthly, both arrived; when all the lamps
> Blended their fires, and, as one torch, approach'd
> The Night-hag, who her skinny hand upheld,
> And, having seiz'd it, bent before the cave,
> And mutter'd unintelligible words,
> And necromantic airs that made the place
> Ring like contending thunders.
> " Now prepare,"
> Solemn she cried, " to tread these chambers, hid
> In night eternal, which no mortal foot
> Hath e'er profaned, but, with the special grace
> Of her who dwells beneath, our potent Queen."
> The Hag proceeded. Doubtful stood the Prince
> Whether to follow, or that instant rush—
> He knew not where, but, mindful of his name,
> Boldly he trod her footsteps.
> On they moved
> Through caverns intricate, and lofty vaults,
> Where bats and screech-owls and the carrion-crow
> Had their safe dwelling; ever flitting by,
> Or sending sounds, reverberated far
> O'er all the black domain, that made the light
> Half conscious of obtrusion. To the mouth
> Of a deep pit they came. Fearless the Hag
> Leap'd downward half her length, standing secure
> Upon a jutting stone that overhung
> Th' abyss, yawning beneath: when, at her call,
> From every secret crevice, issued fast
> Unnumber'd vipers! round the rocky sides,
> As by mechanic impulse each appear'd

Ranged in due order, piercing the hard crag
With fangs, monstrous, and keen, and down they hang,
Coiling, when thus the Hag: "Young Prince, descend!
The steps are distant and impassable,
But by one only means: yon beings grasp,
And with their aid, dauntless proceed!"
The Prince
Leap'd where the Hag had stood, and when to go
Another step, he touch'd the slimy snakes,
His hands recoil'd, and, for a moment, fear
Shot through his blood. The Hag look'd up and cried.
"Doth IVAR shake? think of thy Father's fame,
And journey on unterrified." He now
Beheld her pass; behind he look'd and saw
Impenetrable midnight, and before,
A gulf of depth unknown, whose mouth sent forth
Murmurs and wailing sounds. The single torch
Descended slow, whilst from beneath was heard
The same unceasing call, faint and more faint,
"Dauntless, proceed!" It was no time for thought,
When, grasping hard the scaly snakes, he sprang
From broken step to step, from rock to rock,
And soon his guide o'ertook, who downward still
Moved slowly with her blue and glimmering light.
'Strange horrors shook his frame, he saw the light,
The only light caught by some Demon hand,
Gigantic, and, as shuddering he beheld,
It fell, and all was darkness. Tottering now
'Tween earth and NIFLHEIM deep, the Prince, a chill,
A cold and numbing chill through all his frame
Felt creeping, as on either side, he look'd
Yet nothing saw, whilst to his ear there came
One sound alone, his own fast throbbing heart
Raising faint echoes.
Now on earth he stood,
If name it might receive, when all was veil'd,
And blank uncertainty. In this suspense
And tumult of dismay, his quivering arm
Some unseen being seized! It led him on,
He could not choose—he follow'd, 'till at length
The hand withdrew, when through the air there rose
A dull and bubbling noise, from some near tide
That wound 'mid scatter'd crags its sullen wave.
'Whilst thus immured in darkness, unconceived,
Unutterable, making even life
Seem death disguised: silent and half perceiv'd,
A boat drew nigh the shore, parting the stream
With gentle motion, that a dubious light,
Unwelcomed cast around. "Why laggest thou?"
Exclaimed the Hag, who by him stood unseen,
"Leap fearless to the bark!"—The Prince obey'd,

He plung'd into the flood! no boat was there!
Instant the Hag, her hand, stretch'd and uprais'd
The struggling Prince, and on firm land again
He stands, unknowing how. IVAR look'd round!
Once more he sees his guide, when thus she spake.
" This stream is GIOLL! through the infernal worlds
Rolling his dark tide, whom no ray of heaven
Hath ever lighted on, or venturous being
Touch'd and survived, save thou, and such as thou,
Favor'd of spirits kind. The waster Death,
When tired of dogging his three ministers,
Famine, and War, and Pestilence, here hastes
And, plunging in this stream, again revives
His appetite for slaughter.
Now behold
These unexplored domains." She scarce had said,
When two huge doors of adamant flew wide,
And to his view displayed the secret vault
Where divination dwelt.
Spacious it was,
And in the centre stood a cauldron. Fires,
Crimson and purple, streaming upward, spread
Throughout the scene a lustre, blazing now,
Now half extinguished, though the chill air blew
And all was damp and dreary. To the roof
That frown'd new terrors, looking up, he saw
A Raven—with no Raven's eye! and mark'd
Unsightly shrubs and tapering roots hang down,
Wolfsbane and Deadly-night-shade, thick o'erspread
With living things, abhorrent, by whose aid,
Or heart, or liver, fibre, or thin scale,
The infernal powers prepared their spells, and made
Chains for unconscious mortals. Whilst his breath
Labour'd with fear, the guiding Hag exclaim'd,—
" Now must I leave thee! Yonder view the spot
Where our great Mother lies." The Prince turn'd round
To claim her further service, but her form,
Unknowing how, had vanished, and he stood,
Trembling amid the horrid solitude.
' Round him he gazed, expectant of all harm,
Then, sudden, look'd aghast! A coffin, black,
Slow rising from the yawning sepulchre,
His sight arrested. As he earnest view'd,
He saw the Sorceress! In her narrow bed
Senseless she lay, oppress'd with death-like sleep
A pall she had, the snows of ages! Her
The Prince approach'd; and when he mark'd her face
Her still and livid visage, and her eye
That through the thin thin eye lid half appear'd
Back he recoil'd, in terror, but again

Drew nigh her coffin, and in tremulous tones
Chanted the runic song.
Slowly the Witch
Her form uprais'd, stiff with the caverns damp,
Half red, half blue, whilst venom'd drops distill'd
Upon her bare head, from the craggy roof,
Where fearful beings hung, till then unmark'd,—
Scorpion and Basilisk. When thus she spake,
" I hear the call! What mortal dares disturb
This silent mansion?" Stern she cast her eye—
Her black and shining eye on IVAR near,
And cried, " Who art thou?"

The witch then informs Ivar that he shall not return from his projected invasion.—On his re-ascension to earth, his sisters weave the standard of the fatal raven.

Alfred appears in the second book, merely to despair of resistance to the invaders. He dismisses his troops, and conducts his Queen and infant son to a wild heath.—In the IIId book he meets with a cripple, with whom he divides his provision, and leaves Alswitha and his child in the Abbey of Glastonbury.—Book IV. contains the story of Alfred in the neatherd's cottage, and the burning of the cakes is related at full length: but *quorsum hæc?* At length we hear of the Danes:—who are said to have destroyed Glastonbury Abbey, and to have murdered every person within the walls.—Book V. contains something more than the former: Alfred's child is discovered to have survived the slaughter, and is brought to the neatherd's cottage by Sigbert, a military monk, where Alfred recognizes it. He then discovers himself to Sigbert, and sets out to join his troops.—In Book VI. Sigbert goes 'to learn some tidings of the fallen Queen,' but is taken prisoner by the way. Never, surely, was a chapter so mis-employed, since paper was paper! Sigbert meets with the Queen, without knowing her; and finding her not so communicative of news as the other persons of the Epopœa, he is so angry as to appear almost inclined to beat her.—In Book VII. Alfred joins his army, and, by a singular stroke of military science, dismisses his Generals 'to arouse his subjects,' before he makes his attack on the enemy who was besieging Kenwith Castle.—The subsequent book is occupied by conversation between Alfred and a hermit; and afterward with Sigbert. The action goes on as slowly as foot can fall; and Sigbert seems to have imbibed the non-communicative power of the disguised Queen:

'ALFRED look'd up and said,
" Thou dost mistake me, SIGBERT! I can bear
All that thou hast to say. Now let me know

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"The worst! for not to know might try indeed
My resolution."
SIGBERT spake: "Oh King
Pardon my failure! little have I learn'd
Of thy good Queen ALSWITHA." "Hast thou heard
Aught of her," cried the King. SIGBERT replied
"Something I have obtain'd. Astonish'd hear!
I have been made a prisoner! I have met
GUTHRUM the Danish chief, and but escaped
To bear a threat to thee!"
"How now," replied
ALFRED uprising. "Dost thou mock thy King?
But if thy mind be serious, tell thy tale!
And tho' I speak to thee, answer me not
'Till thou hast ended."

Alfred now discovers, by the jewels which Alswitha sent by Sigbert, that the Queen is alive, but that she remains a captive in the hands of General *Guthrum*.—Book IX. also passes in conversation.—The next chapter contains an account of the burning of the Danish fleet, which the invaders had, very kindly, left under the protection of their *women*.—In Book XI. the garrison of Kenwith escapes through the enemy's camp, and joins the King. This chapter is filled, as usual, with the news of the day.—In Book XII. the Danes appear, attack the deserted castle, and are obliged to satiate their vengeance by killing an old blind *hound*, which had been unable to follow the garrison. The plot now thickens; for Ivar and Hubba put to death their prisoner, Ella, King of Northumberland; after which, they receive intelligence of the destruction of their fleet. Ivar very judiciously says, 'I do not like this news.' Hubba and Guthrum then quarrel, and are with difficulty prevented from fighting;

"Which brings us to
The middle of our song *."

Book XIII. is occupied with Alfred's *determination* to visit the Danish camp in the dress of a harper; and, in the following chapter, the poet has given an ingenious turn to the conduct of Alfred in the enemy's camp, by representing him as counterfeiting a degree of lunacy. He sees, and is recognized by Alswitha.—In Book XV. Hubba demands Alswitha for the purpose of sacrificing her: when another quarrel takes place between him and Guthrum.—Book XVI. The Danish chieftains are now assembled, to decide the fate of Alswitha; and she is saved by the reluctant voice of Ivar, who was prohibited by the oracle from shedding the blood of defenceless persons.—

* John Gilpin.

The XVIIth book is crouded with incidents. Alfred returns to his camp, but finds time to preach a long sermon to Sigbert by the way, and to kill a wolf. He then leads his forces against the enemy, and the rest of the book is consumed in a parley. Book XVIII. contains the beginning of the battle. Ivar and Hubba quarrel, while the Saxon army is advancing. This contention occupies nearly the whole book; and the battle is described in these thirteen concluding lines:

> ' Swift down the hill they rush, and in the plain
> Meet the bold Saxon! See! the fight begins!
> The battle rages! sword with sword hath met!
> And hark the terrors of the sounding shields
> That like two sheets of ice, meet, and through Heaven
> Send their loud dissonance and horrid crash!
> ' The hoary beard of some Norwegian crag,
> High in the elements, that feels the blast
> Shake its grey lock, which to the subject earth,
> At length rolls headlong, spreading as it rolls,
> One wide destruction, well displays the course
> Of ALFRED'S sword, as through the Danish ranks
> It breaks its way – strewing the plain with death.'

We must confess our inability to understand this simile of the ' Norwegian Crag.'

Book XIX. opens with Alfred's orders to spare the flying enemy. Oddune, one of his Generals, in the enthusiasm of victory, mistakes a castle for a giant:

> ' Up to the gate came ODDUNE! in his hand
> He held a lance all crimson, and when safe
> He saw the Danes—the huge gates sudden closed;
> Mists of uncertain forms before his eyes
> Awhile seem'd floating, and, amid the gust
> Of momentary rage, he thought the walls
> Parts of some monstrous and unflying foe,
> At which he hurl'd his lance. When, thus he cried,
> Turning to his near forces, " Guard the gates!
> Now must I seek the King."

The funeral rites of Ivar and Hubba, who were slain by Alfred and Oddune, are then described.

Book XX. Guthrum, who had retreated with the relics of the Danish army to a castle, is summoned to surrender. He refuses, but delivers up Alswitha, because he is told that her husband is ' an honest man in the Saxon army.' Oddune entertains her with a recital of the battle, as they walk to Alfred's camp. Alfred is anxious to hear the Queen's news, (as gossipping seems to be the essence of the modern Epic:) but, on recollection, he thinks it necessary to ' survey his camp' in the first place.—The next chapter then recites the Queen's tale.—In Book XXII. Guthrum surrenders, and embraces

braces Christianity, to which he had been almost converted by the Queen during her captivity.—Alfred, now having no other business on his hands, dreams of a long sermon from his guardian angel, which is contained in Book XXIII.; and the next and final chapter describes the baptism of Guthrum, with thirty of his followers, and the dismission of Alfred's troops.

We are sorry that we cannot characterize the style and versification of this poem, in higher terms than those in which we have treated of its conduct. The greater part of it is really written in measured prose, which is void of every requisite for sublime poetry: but the modesty and diffidence with which the author himself speaks of his performance, in his preface, would have induced us to refrain from all decided censure, had the work been more insignificant in its nature and extent.—With Mr. Cottle we are totally unacquainted: but his book manifests strong evidences of a good and pious disposition. To produce a successful Epic poem, however, other talents are requisite. He may be "an excellent neighbour, and a good bowler, but for Alexander!———*" Alas!

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ART. II. *Travels through the United States of North America, the Country of the Iroquois, and Upper Canada,* in the Years 1795, 1796, and 1797; with an authentic Account of Lower Canada. By the Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt. 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 14s. Boards. Phillips, &c. 1799.

THE notice due from us to these travels has been delayed, by unavoidable circumstances which it is not necessary to state, beyond the time which has generally been prescribed for works of equal importance: but we now turn our attention to them with interest, because the Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt has the merit of being one of those whose sole motive in travelling was to acquire information. His original intention, however, he says, was to confine the fruits of his inquiries 'within the circle of his friends:' but he afterward submitted to the advice of those who were of opinion that the publication would be of 'general advantage.' In thus complying with the judgment of his friends, he would have acted wisely, perhaps, if, instead of the whole, he had limited his communications to a selection of such parts of his journal as were really calculated to promote general benefit. We mean not to be so rigid as to recommend the exclusion of entertaining anecdotes or opinions from works of more solid utility: but they should not be such as are in their nature likely to give pain to

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* Love's labour lost.

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individuals; and they should be written with that unwillingness to offend, which is inseparable from men of liberal and candid dispositions. Our reasons for making these remarks will appear in the sequel.

The inquiries of M. de Liancourt, though directed principally to agricultural objects, embraced a variety of other important particulars concerning the territory of the United States; which form, in his opinion, the 'country in the world the most difficult to be made acquainted with, unless you have traversed it yourself; being in that state of progressive advancement, that what is to-day a fact with regard to its population, its management, its value, and trade, will no longer be so in six months to come; and still less in six months more.'—The account of his travels commences at Philadelphia; whence, after a few months' residence, he departed on his first tour, (which was undertaken with the intention of visiting the provinces of Canada,) May 5th, 1795, in company with Mr. Guillemard, an Englishman, descended from one of those French families which settled in England on account of religious persecutions in their own country. The author describes the district of the city of Philadelphia, which extends four or five miles north and south, as land of very indifferent quality; 'but its vicinity to the town occasions it to be bought with eagerness, and it is covered with country-houses, which, in point of architecture, are very simple. It is the custom of the country to have no wood near the houses.—It is difficult to conjecture the design of this practice in a country, where the heat in summer is altogether intolerable.' The translator assigns as the reason, that the land was 'universally wooded when the building of these houses was first begun; and in a country thus wooded, to clear the space round the dwelling-house, was just as natural, as to plant round the house in a country bare of wood.' Even so near Philadelphia, a great indifference to agricultural improvement is observable. 'Poor-rates are quite unknown. A small sum has been laid up in the bank for the support of the poor, if there should be any.'

At Springmill, one of the first villages through which the travellers passed, the author called on one of his countrymen, who had settled there and planted a vineyard of fifteen acres. 'They are *Medoc* vines; and one vine of the Cape of Good Hope, for which he paid forty guineas, has already produced nearly two hundred layers;'—in what time, we are not informed: but the oldest wines in the cellar had been made only two years. 'The soil is very good and well chosen; and the cleanliness and skill with which the ground is managed, are very remarkable. The fifteen acres give employment to six labourers.'

labourers.' The owner of this vineyard 'received his visitors kindly, and' says the Duke 'spoke many handsome things of my family as well as of myself.' This complaisance, though it is acknowleged, was of little avail. The man had received commendations from Brissot in his American travels; the Duke disliked his countenance; and on these provocations, (at least no others appear,) he is stigmatized as having a bad character, being worthless, &c. The name is industriously given at length, with a remark that Brissot only published the initials.

The marble quarries near Norris-town (seven miles from Philadelphia) were visited. This marble is found in great abundance. It is black and white, and very hard. Nearly all the chimney-pieces in Philadelphia, ornaments of street-doors, steps, &c. are supplied from these quarries. The travellers were informed that, in one, the marble was all white.

In the early part of their progress, the Duke says, the increasing improvement of the country was every where visible. 'Log-houses have given way to stone and brick, and not much woodland remains to be converted into arable ground.'—Nevertheless, at Reading, the difference of price between cleared and uncleared land is stated to be as follows: Land covered with wood was from twenty-five to thirty dollars; while grass-land sold at from one hundred and ten to one hundred and thirty dollars.—The tolerance observed at this place, by all persuasions and sects, in religious matters, is highly commendable: but the author's account conveys a charge of general negligence against the inhabitants. 'Religious worship (he says) is left chiefly to the women,' &c.—At a place called *Ephrata*, is mentioned the society of monks called Dunkers, instituted about forty-five years ago by a German. It is now on the decline, and its dissolution is expected shortly. The particulars here given do not impress the reader with a respectable opinion of the order. The monks are however described as harmless, living on their own land, and tolerably well beloved by the neighbourhood.

At Northumberland, the travellers visited Dr. Priestley and Mr. Cooper; concerning whom, (especially the former,) many particulars are related: but the author's acknowlegements, for the welcome which these gentlemen gave him, are accompanied with a remark equally coarse and offensive.—Following the windings of the Susquehannah river, they arrived at Asylum; and we are presented with a short history of the settlement projected by Messrs. Talon and De Noailles. This scheme did not succeed to the extent which the founders had expected, and which their exertions appear to have merited. A circumstance adverse to the prosperity of the colony was, that there existed

a dispute

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a dispute

a dispute between the States of Pennsylvania and Connecticut concerning the title to the estates contiguous to the lands of Asylum: but, notwithstanding unfavourable incidents, the settlement is here said to have 'attained to an uncommon degree of perfection, considering its infant state. Thirty houses, built in this town, are inhabited by families from St. Domingo, and from France, by French artisans, and even by Americans.' A list of the principal families settled there is added.

The travellers were now joined by M. de Blacons and M. Du Petit Thouars, who engaged to accompany them in their tour to Canada. The latter of these gentlemen, an officer in the French navy, 'encouraged by the Constituent Assembly, and assisted by a subscription, embarked in an expedition in quest of M. de la Pérouse. He was detained on the coast of Brasil by the governor of the colony, Fernando de Noriguez, and sent with his crew to Portugal, where he was very ill treated by the Portuguese government, stripped of all his property, and only escaped farther persecution by fleeing to America.—His sociable, mild, yet truly original temper and character, are set off by a noble simplicity of manners.' We shall hereafter take occasion to add to this account of M. du Petit Thouars.

Respecting the western territory of the province of New York, near Lake Seneca, the author thus writes:

'The whole country abounds in sugar-maple trees, (*Acer Saccharinum*, Lin.) and very considerable quantities of this sugar are made here. The following is the substance of the information, which we were able to procure on this head:

'1. The medium produce of a tree, standing in the midst of a wood, is three pounds of sugar.

'2. The average produce of trees, standing on ground which has been cleared of all other wood, is from six to seven pounds per tree.

'3. A barrel of the first juice, which comes from the maple-tree, will yield seven pounds of sugar, if the tree stand single, and four, if it stand in the midst of other wood. This sugar is sold at one shilling currency (10d. sterling) per pound.

'4. A barrel of the second juice will yield three gallons and a half of treacle.

'5. Four or five barrels of the third juice will yield one barrel of a good and pleasant vinegar.

'6. The vinegar is found to be better, in proportion as it is more concentrated. This is the case with Robinson's vinegar, who, from ten barrels of the third juice, brews but one barrel of vinegar.

'7. To clarify the vinegar, it must be boiled with leaven.

'8. The third juice, which is not used for vinegar, yields cyder of an excellent flavour, when mixed with an equal quantity of water.

'9. The

'9. The longer the first juice is boiled, the better and finer the sugar will become.

'10. In order that the trees may continue productive, they require to be tapped with extraordinary care; i. e. the fissures must be neither too deep nor too wide, so that no water may settle in them, after the juice is extracted, and that the wood may close again in the space of a twelvemonth.

'11. During the time the juice is flowing out, which lasts about six weeks, and generally begins on the 1st of February, all the days on which it freezes or rains are lost, so that the number of days on which the business can be pursued to advantage is frequently, from these circumstances, much diminished.

'12. Maple sugar, however, is already obtained in sufficient quantities, to form a respectable article of trade, as during the above time two persons can frequently make from five to six hundred pounds of it, and this quantity will be increased in proportion to the number of workmen employed. As the maple-tree, wherever it grows, multiplies with astonishing rapidity, we found, almost every where on our journey, no want of excellent sugar.'

In approaching the great lakes, much of the land is flat and marshy; and the few inhabitants of this district are very subject to agues.

'It is a common observation,' says the author, 'that wild animals are less fierce in America than in other parts of the globe; the truth of this is confirmed by the testimony of such as, from their residence in forests, are best qualified to possess satisfactory information. Wolves, bears, nay even panthers, mostly flee before man; and the instances of their doing mischief are so rare, that the very reality of it might be doubted.

'The dangers, therefore, to which new settlers are exposed, are not much to be apprehended. The severest misfortune, to which the inhabitants of the American forest are liable, is the loss of their children in the woods. These unfortunate infants, over whom it is almost impossible to keep constantly a watchful eye, are apt to run out of the house, which is seldom fenced the first year, and straying from their homes are unable to find them again. In such cases, however, all the neighbours, nay persons from the remotest parts, join in the search after these little unfortunate creatures, and sometimes they are found; but there are also instances of their being totally lost, or discovered only when dead of hunger or fear.'

At Canandaqua, the travellers procured an Indian guide, who spoke the French language. Considerable tracts of land in this neighbourhood belong to Indians; and some of these possessions are 'situate within the limits of the territory lately ceded by Great Britain.'

'The State of Massachusetts claims the supreme right to the property, and, in virtue of this right, has sold to Messrs. Phelps and Gorham the exclusive privilege of purchasing these lands from the Indians, whenever they shall consent to part with them. Messrs. Phelps

Phelps and Gorham have sold this privilege of purchase to Mr. Robert Morris, by whom it has been again sold to the Dutch Company; this gentleman has also engaged to open a negociation with the Indians, and to prevail upon them to relinquish their right to a part at least of these lands. Thus four different sets of purchasers have succeeded each other in regard to an object, concerning the sale of which the consent of the true original owners has not yet been obtained; and four different contracts have been entered into, founded on the supposition, that it will be an easy matter to remove the Indians from these distant corners into which they have retired. It is some satisfaction, however, to reflect, that the property of these lands cannot be actually transferred without their consent; but this, alas! is very easily obtained, as their more polished neighbours well know. A little whisky will bribe their chieftains to give their consent to the largest cessions: and these rich lands, this extensive tract of territory, will be bartered away, with the consent of all parties, for a few rings, a few handkerchiefs, some barrels of rum, and perhaps some money, which the unfortunate natives know not how to make use of.'

The claim and sale of such a privilege constitute an act of great injustice to the Indian proprietors; who, if they are inclined to sell, must be at the mercy of an individual who is without a competitor.

The author relates;

'As we passed through the Indian villages, we saw some women employed in works of husbandry, but very few men. Among the Indians the husband does not work at all; all laborious services are performed exclusively by the wife. She not only transacts every part of domestic business, but cultivates the ground, cuts wood, carries loads, &c. The husband hunts, fishes, smokes, and drinks. Yet there are some tribes, such as, for instance, the Tuscarora Indians, among which the husband works, though occasionally and slightly.'

In a village which belonged to the Indians of the Oneida nation, 'the men were less slothful than among the Seneca Indians. They were tolerably ingenious and expert. The Indians of whatever tribe or nation, are, in general, mild and peaceful, kindly officious in little services to the whites, and, on the whole, excellent neighbours.' Most of the tribes have been gradually expatriated; and in those which remain, the numbers have greatly decreased, and are decreasing, by the use of strong liquors, with which they are supplied in their traffic with the colonists.—The following account is given of an Indian village, situated near a creek which communicates with Lake Erie:

'The village of Buffalo is inhabited by the Seneca Indians. The chief of this nation is BROTHERFARMER, a man generally respected by all the tribes as a great warrior and statesman, and for this reason much courted both by English and American agents.

Buffalo is the chief place of the Seneca nation. Instead of eighty houses, of which we had been told this village consisted, we found only about forty. The rest stand on the banks of the creek farther up or downwards, and thus people an extent of several miles. The village is situated on a plain, the soil of which, to judge from the grass it produces, is extremely fertile. We saw Indians cutting the grass with their knives. Some families keep cows, and others even horses. There were some fine oxen to be sold in the village. All the commodities being considered as the produce of the labours of the wives, they alone dispose of them at pleasure. They are looked upon as the sole proprietors. It is with them that every bargain is made, all the money, even the houses in which they live, belong to them; the husbands have nothing but their gun, their tomahawk (a small axe, and at the same time their pipe), and the scalps severed from the skulls of the enemies they have slain, and which in greater or less number form the decoration of the dwellings of all Indian warriors. More property they do not want.

'The dignity of a chieftain is, in general, hereditary among the Indians; though some are also appointed by election. The sons of the chieftains, however, do not succeed, but those of the female chiefs. For the wives preserve this right of succession in their families, and transmit it to their descendants. Yet these Indian queens cultivate their fields with the spade in their hand. Though they have oxen to sell, it has hitherto not occurred to them, to yoke these animals to the plough. I have already observed, that a small field of Indian corn suffices for the wants of a family. There is, at times, another planted with potatoes; but, in general, these are planted between the rows of Indian corn.

'The fields are mostly irregular pieces of land taken from the common; they are not inclosed, being more effectually guarded by an universal honesty, which never deceives. The cattle, which constantly remain in the woods, do no damage to the crops. The fields, cultivated by the Indians, have, in general, a more luxuriant appearance than others, from the manner in which they are cultivated. Being better tilled, and kept constantly free from weeds, they cannot but produce heavier crops, which is actually the case.'

During the two hours which the author passed among these people, nothing particular occurred. He observed but little expression in their faces, little chearfulness, and little sagacity. They were extremely curious, yet viewed every thing without the least mark of astonishment or satisfaction. At Canandaqua, he heard of 'the arrival of a party of Indians who came to demand justice upon an American soldier, who had murdered two Indians from motives of jealousy or revenge. The business, however, was hushed up by the payment of two hundred dollars for each Indian, which is the settled price of compensation in such cases. Not so, however, when an Indian murders a white man: in this case, the assassin is delivered up and hanged.' It seems probable that the option of payment

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is open to both, but that the Indians, not often having the money to spare, or not deeming the culprit worth saving at that price, deliver him up.—The author, partly from his own knowlege, and partly from information resulting from his inquiries, has added many other circumstances respecting the Indians; most of which have appeared in other accounts.

Near Lake Erie, the country appeared a 'vast solitude,' which was interrupted only by a few villages distantly situated from each other. It was a comfort to the Duke and his companions to meet, as they occasionally did, with other travelling parties both of Indians and of white people: emigrations to Canada, and from Canada to the territory of the United States, being frequent. One party consisted of five or six families, (from the United States,) who had with them thirty-four head of cattle.—The Americans are deemed of an unsettled disposition; which may very easily be occasioned by the great quantity and choice of cheap land, and the facility with which they can change their situation.

On the 20th of June, M. de Liancourt and his companions crossed the Niagara nearly opposite to Fort Erie. 'The passage from the American to the English side, requires four or five minutes; and from the English to the American shore, about a quarter of an hour.'

Before we accompany the Duke farther into the British territories, we shall add, from his narrative, a few remarks concerning the part of the United States through which his route lay.

A general negligence is said to prevail in the husbandry: only a small portion of the lands being cultivated, even in the neighbourhood of large towns. It is the custom to plough only four or five inches deep; and in some places they only pass the harrow over the land, and sow wheat. Their stacks are so ill constructed that many of them fall down. Much of this carelessness necessarily arises from the quantity of land which they possess, more than they are capable of cultivating; and, indeed, much more than they can possibly have occasion to cultivate. In many parts, likewise, labourers are very scarce, and consequently dear. At Newton, a settlement lately established in the interior of the province of New York, the author visited the plantation of Colonel Starret; of which, only one hundred out of thirteen hundred acres had been rendered fit for cultivation. The Colonel paid for workmen one dollar per day to each, exclusive of victuals. The price of wheat in that part of the country was then one dollar per bushel. The farmers are little partial to keeping sheep, and are satisfied if they procure wool enough for their own clothing; while

the wolves in many places render it difficult to keep any other than the larger cattle. These parts are sometimes visited by flies and locusts in prodigious swarms:—but they do little injury to the grain. The locusts destroy the leaves of the trees. At Canawaga, besides a great variety of other insects, there were 'luminous worms, so very numerous as to diffuse by night a brightness really astonishing.'—In the present circumstances of the Americans, it is little matter of surprise if they give occasion for the remark, that the favourite principle of their system of agriculture seems to be, to avoid whatsoever requires labour.

In his journey, the author met with Mr. Brown, member of the Congress for Kentucky; and M. de Liancourt 'sifted him a little,' respecting the present state of that province:

'The result of the information I obtained (says he) is, that the soil is every where excellent, and frequently yields, for the first harvest, from one hundred to one hundred and ten bushels of Indian corn, and from fifty to fifty-five bushels of wheat an acre; that the price of land is six dollars per acre; of flour eleven dollars per barrel, and of Indian corn, one sixth of a dollar per bushel; that the population, which, in 1790, consisted of ninety thousand souls, amounts at present to one hundred and fifty thousand; that, in the course of last year, twenty-five thousand persons settled there; that the Indians attempt no longer any inroads in that part of the United States, which, though occupied the last of all, advances more rapidly towards a state of prosperity than any other district in America.'

We extract the following paragraph as an example of the manners of the Pennsylvanians:

'We overtook the stage-coach again at the White Horse, where the passengers breakfasted. It appears somewhat strange to Europeans to see the coachman eat at the same table with the passengers.—An innkeeper, a shoemaker, &c. are at liberty to wait on others, or to let it alone; but if they choose to wait on others, they should keep at a proper distance, and observe the respect which becomes their situation. It must be observed, however, that many an innkeeper in America is a Captain or a Major: nay, I have seen drivers of stage-coaches who were Colonels: such things are very common in America.—At several inns on less frequented roads, the circumstance of our servant not dining with us at the same table, excited general astonishment.'

Of the spirit of independence in the American States, the following account, if correctly given, affords an extraordinary example:

'The white American, by a pride which cannot be blamed, and which proceeds from the negroes being generally employed in the service, is ashamed of the situation of a domestic: so that there cannot be reckoned, throughout the whole extent of the United Provinces, twenty

native Americans in the state of domestic servants. The class of domestics is composed of poor priests, Germans, negroes, and mulattoes; and as soon as the first have acquired a little money, they quit that station, regarded with a sort of contempt, and establish themselves upon land.'—' The prejudice which causes the men in America to have so great a repugnance to the state of domestic servitude, does not influence the women in the same degree. Nothing is more common than to see young women of good families in the situation of servants, during the first years of their youth.'

We cannot refrain from observing that, both in the part of the journey which we have already noticed, and throughout the work, the author has taken the most indecent liberties with private characters. In numerous instances, he has retailed the little scandal and evil reports which neighbours are said to have whispered of each other; some of those stories, which he calls ludicrous, are incredible and foolish; and even little familiarities of courtship, with a modest young woman, are related with the same wantonness. Whether the Duke regarded himself as privileged by his rank, or whether an uncommonly *curious* disposition was wholly uncontrouled by any powers of retention, we cannot determine: but his mention of persons is frequently divested of delicacy and discretion; and he appears to be but little restrained by the dictates of charity. His commendations are generally accompanied with something invidious; and where he seems really to intend praise, his language is effeminate, and bordering on affectation. His political remarks are pointedly national; and he continually finds occasion to express a dislike, sometimes a contempt, of the *English*, while he bestows encomium on the *French* character. Partiality and preference for our own country and countrymen, under whatever circumstances, is a bias so natural, that it would be unjust to impute blame to such a sentiment: but decency would have prevented most persons from expressing ill-will towards any other country, in the degree apparently felt by the Duke towards the Engliſh. We speak not on the score of any civilities which the Duke may have experienced in this kingdom: those, if such have been, are to be regarded as a private account between him and his friends: nor do we claim any merit because our country has afforded shelter to the unfortunate of other states, who have been exiled from their native land, not for actions of moral turpitude: but there are boundaries which the customary civility of intercourse prescribes. We must, however, confess that examples are not wanting, of English writers who have shewn an equal degree of disrespect for other countries; and such excuse as bad precedent affords, M. de Liancourt may be allowed to claim, for

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as much of his remarks as are national or of a public nature: but the cool levity with which individuals are treated by him is, perhaps, without parallel among writers who have pretended any regard for the character of others, or for their own.

The travellers proceeded by water to Niagara. The sight of these falls, and the tremendous noise which they occasion, are described as truly impressive.

'From the civil treatment (says the author) we experienced, as soon as we reached the boundaries of the government of General Simcoe, we could not but expect a kind reception on his part; and yet the event exceeded our expectation. No sooner was he informed of our arrival, than he sent his Adjutant-general to invite us to dinner. Having just alighted from his horse, he could not come himself. We accepted his invitation, and shortly after dinner, he entreated us to remain with him, to sleep in his house, and consider ourselves at home. To refuse this invitation would have ill corresponded with the politeness of his conduct, of the sincerity of which we were convinced.'——

'We soon understood, that we should be obliged to continue longer in Niagara than we originally designed. On my acquainting Gen. Simcoe with my intention to proceed to Quebec, he informed me, that, without the express permission of Lord Dorchester, it was not in his power to allow any foreigner to enter Lower Canada; he even shewed us the Governor-general's positive orders to that effect, issued in the month of October, and occasioned by the conduct of some Frenchmen.'

Letters were dispatched to Lord Dorchester, in Lower Canada, requesting passports; the answer to which, from so great a distance, could not arrive under a considerable length of time. Much of this interval appears to have been filled up by the acquisition of political information; which, with the accompanying remarks, was probably committed to paper in an irritated state of mind. We shall not comment on the Duke's political reasonings: we wish not to disturb his prepossessions: but the reader will observe, with no little degree of wonder, the apparent unconsciousness with which the Duke has communicated circumstances which no man, with the smallest respect to propriety, could deem himself intitled to publish. A considerable portion of his communications, respecting Canada, consists in relations of what passed in private conversation. Whether the representations of M. de Liancourt be correct, or otherwise, it is not our province to inquire: but it is painful to us to behold an instance of a man of high rank and liberal education so abusing the general confidence observed not only among gentlemen, but among all ranks of people, as to treasure up for general circulation what-

ever might be uttered in the unsuspicious intercourse of retired society.

While the Duke remained with the Governor of Upper Canada, he was witness to several visits of ceremony made by the Indians. On these occasions,

'They were decked out with uncommon care, covered with rags of every description, and adorned with horse-hair and feathers of all possible species of birds.'—'In their manner of painting themselves, their genius is especially displayed. They are every one of them painted in a different style, and furnished with a small glass, which they every moment consult, with as much attention as the most finished coquette.'—'Their chief excellency consists in the great variety and richness of the colours, which they generally extract from leaves and from the roots of certain herbs; but they possess also the art of extracting them from all dyed linens or silks of which they can obtain a piece. They boil these rags in the juice of a plant, with the species of which I am unacquainted, and thus obtain a very durable colour for dying hair or bark.'

The Americans and English are each accused of inciting the Indians to acts of hostility against the other. The author 'indulges the hope that the time is not far distant, when the Indians shall possess sufficient sense to take the presents of England and the money of the United States, and to laugh at both these great nations; scorning to be any longer the tools of their ambition and revenge.' Would it not be as well that they should cease to be fools without becoming knaves?

At the end of eighteen days, our travelling party embarked in a vessel belonging to government, for Kingston, near the N.E. extremity of Lake Ontario; where, it was expected, the answer from Lord Dorchester would sooner be received. The author was 'so much displeased with the idea of making his passage at the expence of the King of England, that he ventured to offer money' to the captain; and his offer is said not to have met with a denial. He adds that the captain was a worthy man, civil, constantly on deck, &c. Whatever merit there might be in this piece of generosity, (which did not, however, lessen the expence of the King of England,) it is fully balanced by the poverty of spirit evinced in complaining to the reader respecting the acceptance of a gratuity, which the donor was not required (and probably not warranted) to offer.

The climate of this part of Upper Canada is favourable for the cultivator:

'There is no danger here, as in Europe, of the hay rotting, and the grain being spoiled by rains, if not speedily housed. There seldom passes a day without sun-shine; the sky is seldom entirely overcast; it never rains but during thunder-storms, and this rain never

never continues longer than two hours. Grain is, besides, seldom liable here to blights, or any other kind of disease.

'The cattle are not subject to contagious distempers; they are numerous, without being remarkably fine.—Sheep are more numerous here than in any part of the United States which we have hitherto traversed. They are either procured from Lower Canada or the State of New York, and cost three dollars a head. They thrive in this country, but are high-legged, and of a very indifferent shape.'

Considerable quantities of the maple sugar are prepared by the Indians, as well as by the Canadian farmers. The whole amount of a common harvest in Lower Canada is estimated at four thousand bushels, three fourths of which are consumed in the country. In the neighbourhood of Kingston, the price of land was from two shillings and sixpence to one dollar per acre, if the twentieth part was cleared; and the price rises in proportion to the number of acres freed from wood. The rents are sometimes paid in grain. Provisions are cheaper in Lower Canada than in most parts of the United States. Emigrations likewise are more considerable from the United States to Canada, than from the latter to the former.

'We had an opportunity (says the author) of seeing a Canadian family, who were emigrating to the Illinois River. The husband had examined the settlement last year, and was now removing thither with his whole family, consisting of his wife and four children all embarked in a boat made of bark, fifteen feet in length by three in width. While the parents were rowing at the head and stern, the children, excepting the oldest, who was likewise rowing, were seated on mattresses or other effects; and thus they sang and pursued their voyage of at least one thousand one hundred miles. We met them at Newark. They proceed along the banks of the lakes and rivers, lie still every night, make a sort of tents of their sheets supported by two poles, dress their supper, eat it, wrap themselves up in their blankets until the morning, set off at eight o'clock, stop once a day to a meal, and then pursue their voyage again until the evening.'

On July 22d. the long expected answer from the Governor of Lower Canada arrived. 'It was of a nature,' says the author, 'to strike us with amazement,—a solemn prohibition, drawn up in the usual form, against coming to Lower Canada.' We wish not to entertain the reader with the Duke's complaints of this mortifying prohibition: his feelings on the occasion appear to have been sufficiently keen: but, as we become acquainted with his character from the perusal of his narrative, we neither wonder at nor lament his disappointment. It is natural to conclude that the Governor of Lower Canada had received some intimations of the inquisitive habits and busy disposition of his intended visitor; and, indeed, the Duke himself entertained a suspicion of a similar nature, which he ex-

presses by saying that 'some emigrated French priest might have played me this trick by his influence over his Lordship's secretary or his mistress:——and well may this be the case; for, though, Heaven be thanked! I have never injured any one, yet I find constantly people in my way, who endeavour to injure me.' This is a species of confession which, if the work before us did not furnish sufficient proof, might be argued as evidence against the author's protestations of his harmlessness. No man of an inoffensive character will 'find people constantly in his way who endeavour to injure him.'

It was not to be supposed that, with the avowed prepossessions of the Duke against the English, the officers and merchants of our country would escape unattacked. It is true that he sometimes commends the English, but his compliments are *oddly turned;* of which the following passage is a sample. 'So much the better; a day is gone; for though the unwearied politeness of the officers affords us every day in Kingston a comfortable dinner and agreeable society from four to eight o'clock in the evening, yet we cannot but feel much *ennui*, in a place where no sort of amusement, *no well-informed man*, and no books shorten the long lingering day.' When he bestows commendation, he seems to think himself intitled to debit us, and take so much credit to the other side. We are not in the least desirous of keeping open such an account.

M. de Liancourt was not long in quitting Canada. The party embarked in a boat for Oswego; whence they directed their route across the province of New York and Massachusets, towards Boston. In this journey, the author took the consolation of visiting Saratoga. 'Yes,' he exclaims; 'I have seen that truly memorable place. If you love the English, are fond of conversing with them, and live with them on terms of familiarity and friendship, it is no bad thing, if occasionally you can say to them, "*I have seen Saratoga.*"

At Albany, the Duke parted from his companion, M. du Petit Thouars; who, having contracted an aguish complaint while in the marshy country near the lakes, thought it prudent to return home. This gentleman is described, not only by the present author, but by other persons who were well acquainted with him, as a man of a very valuable character: of a truly cheerful pleasant disposition and manners; experienced in his profession; enterprizing, and well informed. We have already mentioned his unfortunate expedition to the Brasils; (p. 12.) and the sequel of the history of this brave man must be a subject of sincere regret to all who hold real worth in estimation. Tired of the inactive life which he led in America, he returned to France, and made an offer of his services to the minister

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of the Marine; the offer was accepted; and he was appointed to the command of *Le Tonnant* of 84 guns, in which ship he fell at the memorable battle of the Nile, having continued to defend her with the most persevering resolution, even after he received his mortal wound.

The state of Massachusetts, the author writes, is as much cultivated as France:

'The road from Marlborough to Boston is a continual village. Twenty miles from this city begins an uninterrupted line of handsome houses, cleanly and pleasant buildings, neat gardens, and fine orchards, which form altogher a rich and delightful prospect, the charms of which are still more enhanced by numberless horses, cattle, and sheep, which enliven the landscape, and are sheltered from the scorching sun by clumps of trees, planted for that purpose. You see every where numerous churches, of a simple construction, but neatly painted, and furnished with fine spires. They are surrounded with open stables, in which the country-people put up their horses during the service. This is a pretty general custom throughout America, unknown in Europe, but which is more carefully attended to in Massachusetts, the most opulent and populous of these states I have hitherto seen.

'At last you pass through the handsome village of Cambridge, and reach Boston by a wooden bridge, which was finished last year, and which, including the causeway leading to it, is a mile in length.'

M. de Liancourt gives a good character of the University at Cambridge, in this province, in which are professorships for every branch of science. 'The funds for its support not being sufficiently considerable to instruct the scholars *gratis*, they are obliged to pay quarterly the moderate sum of sixteen dollars. They pay also six dollars per month for their board, and are admitted after a previous examination by the professors.' At Boston, and in many other towns in the United States, schools are supported out of the parish-rates.

In speaking of the trade of Boston, the author gives a short history of a voyage to the western coast of North America, the particulars of which were communicated to him by Captain Roberts, under whose command the expedition was performed. The most remarkable occurrence in this voyage was the discovery of some islands to the N.W. of the Marquesas, but which had been seen by another American vessel in the year before*.

From Boston, the author went by sea to Thomas-town, to Penobscot, and to other towns on that coast. He gives an account of the fisheries, which, with cutting and shipping off wood for the southern ports, form the principal occupation of the inhabitants. This country, though it has been long settled, is very thinly inhabited, as emigrants do not resort to

* See the 1st Art. in our *Appendix*, published with this Number.

it: the western districts of Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and other parts in which the climate is milder, being naturally preferred. From Portsmouth, a town of considerable trade, the Duke returned by land to Boston. He again speaks of the population and high state of culture in his approach to that town: 'It is an uninterrupted garden. The road in every part, better than any I have seen in America. It would be considered a delightful road even in the most beautiful districts of France and England.'

On his return to Boston, the author has added many particulars of informatian concerning the commerce of that port.—Hence he proceeded to the southward, through Plymouth, (where are considerable iron manufactories,) and through the States of Rhode Island and Connecticut, to New York. Rhode Island is one of the few places in the United States, in which the price of lands has not risen for some years past. The farmers are poor, and the population of the country has suffered by emigrations, particularly to Canada. The island, however, has a good trade to the West Indies, with horses, cattle, and provisions. The trade of Connecticut, likewise, is confined to the exportation of the surplus produce of the lands to the West India islands, or to the other states of the Union. The people of this state, the author remarks, 'are, all, in easy circumstances; few of them opulent.'——'They are said to be very litigious. No state, perhaps no equal number of people in the universe, have such a number of law-suits. There is nowhere else such a mob of advocates as here.'

The Duke made but a short stay at New York, and returned to Philadelphia, having been absent from that city seven months.—In different parts of his tour, he has made mineralogical observations; and at every place in which he had time to prosecute inquiries, he collected information respecting the soil, cultivation, produce, population, and commerce; with a variety of other matter, the detail of which would carry us beyond our customary limits.

[*To be continued.*] Capt. B....y.

ART. III. *The Punishments of China:* illustrated by Twenty-Two Engravings: with Explanations in English and French. Royal Quarto. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1801.

IF there now be any persons who, like the late George Selwyn, are *amateurs* of the science of punishment, (school-masters excepted in course,) they will receive with eagerness the fresh supply of amusement which the title of this work will promise to them; and, when the exquisite luxury of a real execution

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is not to be obtained, they will be much gratified in surveying these silent representations of torture:—but we are of opinion that, where this singular taste does not exist, these coloured engravings must excite more pain than pleasure. A description of the sufferings of malefactors is sufficiently shocking; and we imagine that the public are not so solicitous of accurate information on this subject, as to wish to have the whole series of punishments strikingly pourtrayed by the pencil of the artist. We cannot, indeed, refrain from contemplating this publication with some emotion of surprise, at the fancy or the judgment which induced the proprietor of this work to open so singular an exhibition. Let his opinion of the public curiosity, however, or his own taste, be as they may, we wish that he had avowed himself, and had condescended to give a history of his undertaking. From the similarity of the two works, it is no doubt expected that we should consider the present set of plates as a sort of companion to the splendid publication of Major Mason, on *the Costume of China*, of which we lately gave some account (vol. xxxiii. p. 354): but we feel it to be our duty to remark that neither that gentleman's name, nor any other signature, appears to vouch for its authenticity, and to assure the public that these are accurate delineations of the *castigating* practices of the Chinese. Though the subjects of them cannot be pleasing, some degree of curiosity may be attached to them: but then we ought to be assured that our feelings are not unnecessarily shocked by fictitious representations. We indeed see no reason for entertaining such doubts: but, instead of a detail similar to that by which Mr. Mason thought himself bound in honour to introduce his series of plates, we have only the following observations on the Chinese penal code, by way of preface:

'The Chinese code of penal laws is compiled in such a manner as to have a punishment appropriated for every crime. A series of these is displayed in the following plates *.

'The wisdom of the Chinese Legislature is no where more conspicuous than in its treatment of robbers, no person being doomed to suffer death for having merely deprived another of some temporal property, provided he neither uses nor carries any offensive weapon. This sagacious edict renders robbery unfrequent; the daring violator of the laws, hesitating to take with him those means, which might preserve his own life, or affect that of the plundered, in event of resistance, generally confines his depredations to acts of private pilfering; and a robbery, attended with murder, is, of course, very rarely

* The writer should rather have said 'a series of some of them,' as these plates cannot comprize all the crimes committed; and we are soon told that they are *not all* the punishments inflicted by the Chinese. Rev.

perpetrated.

perpetrated. This instance of justice, moderation, and wisdom, in the laws of China, receives an unfavourable contrast in the decree, which pronounces the wearing of a particular ornament to be a capital crime; and in the custom of attending to the fallacious information extorted by the rack.

'Various writers have mentioned other punishments, in addition to those represented in this publication, of a much severer nature, which have been inflicted by the Chinese upon criminals, convicted of regicide, parricide, rebellion, treason, or sedition; but drawings, or even verbal descriptions of these, would be committing an indecorous violence on the feelings, and inducing us to arraign the temperance and wisdom, so universally acknowledged in the government of China.'

Before we transcribe the remainder of this preface, we must arrest the reader's attention by a remark or two on the passage which he has just perused. If the Chinese be guilty of extreme cruelty towards any class of offenders, their temperance and wisdom ought to be arraigned; and we should not compliment this peop'e, and their government, by attributing to them virtues which they do not possess. Besides, in the exhibition of torture and misery, it is fair to ask *how far* we may proceed without *committing indecorous violence* on the feelings of humanity? The reason here assigned for not enlarging the exhibition might have induced the editor, as many will think, to withhold some pictures admitted into the collection; and he may be asked whether, in the delineation of a man *under the torture of the rack*, and of *the capital punishment of the cord*, he has not committed an indecorous violence on the feelings of the spectator?

The preface thus concludes:

'Exclusively of their novelty and information, the principal recommendations, possessed by representations of this nature, arise from the sensation of security *, which they produce in those bosoms that heave upon a tract of the globe, where they are protected from being torn by lengthened agonies: where a person's innocence is not estimated by his mental or corporeal powers of enduring pain: where tyranny, fanaticism, or anarchy, cannot exercise their demoniacal propensities for cruelty: where capital punishment is only instituted and permitted as a necessary link in the chain of social order, to deter the evil-minded from committing outrages against their fellow-creatures, and to debar the offender from the power of perpetrating farther wrong. These intentions are fully answered

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* This supposed sensation is similar to the pleasure which Lucretius describes a man to feel, who, safe on shore, surveys the horrors of a storm:

"*Suave mari magno, turbantibus æquora ventis,*
Impavidis oculis, pelagi spectare pericla."

by publickly depriving the malefactor of his existence, which is effected, in England, in a manner the most instantaneous and least sanguinary, that a compassionate people could adopt; and whose natural intrepidity is further manifested by this attention to the pangs of suffering humanity.'

We are far from wishing that our government should copy the punishments here delineated as those which are practised in China: but, though our own country possesses as much humanity and benevolence as any region of the globe, it may be questioned whether we are not too liberal of capital punishment; and whether more death is not dealt forth by the law, than is absolutely necessary to social order.

The plates in this volume represent the following objects:

1. A culprit before a magistrate.
2. A culprit conveyed to prison.
3. A culprit conducted to trial.
4. An offender undergoing the bastinade.
5. Twisting a man's ears.
6. Punishment of the swing.
7. Punishing a boatman.
8. Punishing an interpreter.
9. The rack!
10. Torturing the fingers.
11. Burning a man's eyes with lime!
12. A malefactor chained to an iron bar.
13. Punishment of the wooden collar.
14. A man fastened to a block of wood.
15. A malefactor in a cage!
16. Punishment of a wooden tube.
17. Hamstringing a malefactor!
18. Close confinement.
19. Conducting an offender into banishment.
20. A malefactor conducted to execution.
21. The capital punishment of the chord; (or strangling.)
22. The manner of beheading.

Every person of feeling, after having contemplated these plates, would surely be ready to exclaim with Macbeth,

———"*No more sights!*"

The explanatory parts of this work being so far from agreeable in their nature, we cannot select such various quotations as we made from Major Mason's work. The account of the first plate, however, is instructive and unobjectionable:

'It is the custom in China, for a Mandarin of justice to administer it daily, morning and evening, in his own house, where he is attended by his secretary, or clerk, and by inferior officers, some of them bearing iron shackles, and others, pan-tsees *. Upon his right-hand stands the prosecutor, or informer; and before him is a table with a covering of silk, and the implements of writing for the secretary to take down the depositions and defence. These having been written in black ink, the magistrate signs them with

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* *Pan-tsee* is a thick piece of split bamboo cane, the lower end of which is about four inches in width and the latter end small and smooth, to render the instrument more convenient for the hand. It is used to inflict the punishment of the bastinade.

red, and seals them with the same colour. On the table there are, also, a number of small sticks, tipped with red; these are kept in open cases, and are used in the following manner: If a culprit is convicted of a petty offence, the magistrate causes him to be immediately chastised and released. The usual punishment on such occasions, is the pan-tsee, or bastinade, and the number of blows to be inflicted is signified by the magistrate's casting some of the abovementioned small sticks upon the floor: each stick denotes five blows. The culprit, who, during the examination, has awaited the decree upon his hands and knees, is then seized by the attendants, and punished. After the magistrate has thrown the sticks, he talks of other affairs, drinks his tea, or smoaks his tobacco.

'It is only for trivial breaches of the Chinese laws, such as drunkenness, cheating, squabbling, boxing, pilfering, insolence or inattention towards a superior, or the like, that any magistrate is empowered to administer punishment in a summary manner. Whenever the crime is of such a description as to call for severer notice, it is generally examined into by five or six tribunals, who not only require very particular information concerning the charge, but scrutinize with minute exactness into the characters and manners of the accusers.

'Their proceedings in capital accusations are thus protracted in China, lest any man should be unjustly deprived of the inestimable benefits of honour or life: and no criminal can be executed until his trial has been sent to court, and his sentence has been confirmed by the Emperor.'

To whom we are indebted for these explanations, we are not told, any more than to whom we owe the plates: but Sir George Staunton's account of the British Embassy to China is sometimes quoted as authority. It is merely justice to add that the engravings and the colouring possess equal merit with those which decorated Major Mason's publication. Moo-y.

Art. IV. *The Oriental Geography of Ebn Haukal*, an Arabian Traveller of the Tenth Century. Translated from a Manuscript in his own Possession, collated with one preserved in the Library of Eton College, by Sir William Ouseley, Knt. LL.D. 4to. pp. 363. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

To rear and to complete the lofty structure of antient and modern geography, the united labours of all ages and all countries were requisite. However inferior to others the Asiatics may be in general science, a more correct knowlege of the local situation of the countries which they inhabit must certainly be conceded to them; and however great is the improvement which geography has received in modern times, the former population, commerce, and comparative importance of different cities, can no longer be ascertained with accuracy but by a reference to the writers who flourished in them, at distant

periods. Abul Casim Ebn Haukal in all probability composed his work about the middle of the tenth century, in the Arabic language; and though it cannot thence be inferred that he was an Arabian, the epithet of traveller is justly applied to him, as he mentions that he visited Egypt and Samarcand in person.—The translation now offered to the public is made from a Persian commentary; and the inaccuracy of successive copyists has occasioned considerable perplexity in the multitude of proper names, which necessarily occur in a geographical work. The same name is frequently found differently spelt, and sometimes so completely changed as to leave no trace of its identity; the distances are often erroneous; and all the mistakes, which might naturally be expected in a manuscript repeatedly transcribed by ignorant amanuenses, abound in the original, and are faithfully preserved in the translation. In order to illustrate his author, Sir William Ouseley has assiduously consulted a great variety of Oriental writers: but his illustrations are reserved for a a future work, and in the meantime Ebn Haukal appears before the public with blemishes not his own. It might be imagined that the learned translator considered even the mistakes of an Oriental writer as singularly curious and edifying; for it were impossible to copy them with greater fidelity, or to be more cautious lest his readers should lose the acquisition of a single error.

'My design,' says Ebn Haukal, 'in the composition of this book, is to describe the various climates and regions of the face of the earth, comprized within the circle of Islam, or Mohamedanism:—but, as the particular details seemed unnecessarily prolix, they are here compressed within a small compass; and in the present volume, which is entitled Mesalec or Memalec, our plan is to describe, and to delineate on maps, the various seas or oceans which surround the land, the inhabited and the desert islands, and every climate or region of the earth; affixing the name of each, so that it may be known in the maps; and confining ourselves to those countries which are the seat of Islam, and the residence of true believers.' The maps might possibly have supplied some important desiderata in eastern geography, but unfortunately they were wanting in Sir William's manuscript. We do, indeed, find a map prefixed to this publication, intitled, 'a general map to illustrate Sir William Ouseley's translation of the Oriental geography of Ebn Haukal:' but it affords a mere outline of the general divisions of Asia, and the position of a few of the principal cities, derived from the materials furnished by European geographers.

In the tenth century, the religion of Mohamed prevailed in the fairest regions of the globe, and extended its influence from the

the banks of the Tagus to the source of the Oxus. The seat of Islam comprehended, in Europe, the best part of Spain or Andalus, the islands of Sicily and Crete, (Sicalia and Acrites,) and probably some smaller isles of the Archipelago. In Africa, it extended from Tangier opposite to Jebeltaric, (Gibraltar,) along the coasts of the Mediterranean to Egypt; which it included, as well as Nubia and Baja, on the confines of Abyssinia. The space from Tangier to Sus-al-acsi (Terudant in Morocco), comprehended the countries of the Moslems on the shores of the Atlantic. In Asia, the boundaries of Islam were limited only by the Hindus on the east, and by the Tartars on the northern extremity; Syria, Arabia, Persia, and Transoxania, were the principal seats of the new faith: but it is singular that Arabia, in which it had its origin, should have been totally omitted by this Mohamedan geographer. We are disposed to think that the translator's manuscript is incomplete; and we cannot agree with him that 'the author appears to have accomplished his design, intimated in the second and third pages of this work,' when so material a deficiency occurs in the execution of his plan.

From the illustrations promised by the ingenious translator, we anticipate much curious information: but the work before us chiefly presents an itinerary, which, though highly useful to the construction of future maps, particularly of Asia, affords little pleasure in the perusal. The descriptions of countries and cities seldom supply the most important particulars; instead of the number of inhabitants, Ebn Haukal informs us of the number of the gates; and when to this statement he has superadded the number of the mosques, the city is amply described. Sometimes he ventures into greater detail, and speaks of the commerce and agriculture of the country; especially in his account of Transoxania (Maverulnehr), to which he gives a decided preference over all the regions of Islam. Indeed, we have long been of opinion that the histories and scientific performances of Asia are chiefly useful as authorities and text books; they may supply important facts and useful hints, but their utility is by no means proportioned to their bulk. To a mind capable of combining and digesting the knowlege derived from different sources, they will furnish materials for agreeable and instructive disquisitions: but, for this purpose, a literal translation is less requisite than a lucid commentary; which may include the useful knowlege comprized in the original with the requisite illustrations, and exclude every passage which has no merit but that of coming from the pen of an Asiatic.

As a specimen of the present work, we insert two of the most entertaining chapters; to which we have subjoined occasional remarks in the form of notes:

Account

'*Account of the most extraordinary Edifices in Pars (Persia) and other Curiosities.*

'In the territory of Istakhar is a great building, with statues carved in stone; and there, also, are inscriptions, and paintings. It is said that this was a temple of Solomon, to whom be peace! and that it was built by the Dives, or Demons: similar edifices are in Syria, and Baalbeck, and Egypt *.

'In the territory of Istakhar, also, there is a kind of apple, half of which is sweet, and half sour. Merdas ben Omru mentioned this circumstance to Hasan Reja: he denied the possibility of it, and Merdas sent and caused one to be brought, and shewed it to him.

'At the village of Abderrahman, there is a certain great pit, the bottom of which is dry all the year, except at the season for watering the fields, when water issues from it, and serves for the purposes of agriculture and drinking. When it is not any longer necessary for the husbandman's use, the water disappears †.

'In the territory of Shapur, there is a mountain; and in that mountain are the statues of all the kings, and generals, and high priests (Mubed), and illustrious men, who have existed in Pars. And in that place are some persons who have representatione of them, and the stories of them written; and this tribe belongs to the territory of Arghan, at Hism Mohdi ‡.

'At the city of Jaur, near the northern gate, is a pond, or pool of water, in which a brazen vessel is so placed, that, from a hole in it, the water issues with great violence.

'In the vicinity of Abercuh are considerable heaps of ashes. The common people say, that here was the fire of Nimrod (into which he caused Abraham to be thrown). But this is not true: the fact is, that Nimrod, and the kings of Canaan, dwelt in the land of Babylon.

'In the Cura of Arghan [called Ragian on our maps. *R.*] at the village called Sahil al Arab, there is a well, from which proceeds water enough to turn a mill, and water the fields. The people here say, that they have made various efforts to ascertain the depth of this well, but have not ever been able to reach the bottom.

'In the Cura of Rostac al rostac there is a place between two hills, from which smoke constantly issues; and it is said, that if a bird should fly near that place, it would drop down.

'In the Desht Varin, there is a village called Khusruhin, in which

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* The ruins here meant are the Chehel Minar, or forty pillars, supposed to constitute the only remains of the city of Persepolis, destroyed by Alexander. *R.*

† This singular phænomenon is not entirely without example; as we read of a pool in Guienne, near the church of St. Jean D'Angeli, which is almost destitute of water in winter, though in summer it yields it abundantly. A similar fountain is said to exist in Spain, about twelve miles from Valladolid, which begins to flow in May, and ceases in November. *R.*

‡ We know not whether the above passage relates to the ruins at Nakshi Rustum, which have been usually mentioned as sepulchres. *R.*

there

there is not any tree. Here is a family, of whose sorceries and magic I have heard such an anecdote as cannot be repeated.

'In Ardeshir Dera, near the gate of Shiraz, is a fountain, of which they drink the water as a purgative; one cupful operates once upon the body; two cups full, twice: if one drinks many, it occasions vomitings, and excessive evacuations.

'Near Arghan, (Ragian,) on the borders of Khuzistan, is a remarkable pile, or heap, called the Tel Dilemi, with a vault or recess, two hundred paces broad, and so high that a man, mounted on a mule, with a standard in his hand, cannot reach the top.

'In the territory of Cuan, there is a certain flower, which they eat green, like the leaves of the Chucander.

'In the territory of Shiraz, there is a plant or herb, which they call Susen Nergus, (the lily narcissus).

'Near Varin there is a river called Nehrchin, the water of which is pleasant to the taste, and is used for the purposes of agriculture; but when clothes are washed in it, it becomes green *.'

'*Account of the Commodities and Productions of Fars.*

'The rose water of Shiraz is most remarkably excellent, and highly esteemed in all parts of the world. It is chiefly made at Jaur, and sent by sea to Hejaz (Arabia Deserta) and Yemen (Arabia Felix). It is also sent to Syria, and Egypt, and Magreb, or Africa, and Khorazan. Here also is made oil, better than that of any other place, except the oil of Khiri, and that of Cufa.

'At Sinir, Genaba, Cazrun, and Tuj, linen garments are manufactured; and the embroidery and clothes made at Basa are esteemed by the princes in all countries, and sent into all parts of the world. The gold brocade worn by the princes is made at Basa. This embroidery is performed with a needle; and here they also weave cloth of gold, and fine garments, and hangings, and silk, and camel's hair.

'At Yezd and Abercuh, they manufacture clothes of silk and cotton; at Gehrem, fine carpets. At Abdejan, which is a town of the Desht Varin, they make beautiful tapestry and carpets. Basa is remarkable for needle-work; and they excel there, in respect to that art, the people of Corcub.

'At Siraf they abound in marine productions, and commodities brought by sea; such as aloes, ambergris, camphire, pearl, canes, ivory, and ebony; pepper, sandal, and various kinds of drugs and medicines, are sent from that place to all quarters of the world; and in this city there are such wealthy merchants, that several of them possess fortunes of sixty thousand direms; and I have seen them.

'In the village called Afaresc, they make such excellent syrup, that no other place can equal it in that respect, except Silan.

'At Cazrun there is a certain species of date, called Khilan, which they send into Irac and Isfahan. At Darabghird, in the ditches which surround the town, there is a certain fish extremely pleasing to the taste, without any bone.

'In the vicinity of Darabghird, mummy is found. Once every

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* This circumstance may be explained on chemical principles. *R.*

year

year they open the place where it is produced, and a certain quantity of it is taken for the king's use, in presence of confidential persons, who then seal up the place; and in the territory of Darabghird there are hills of salt, white, black, yellow, and green *.

'In the land of Pars there are mines of silver, and iron, and lead, and sulphur, and naphta. The silver is scarce, and found in the cold region called Manein.' Iron is brought from the mountains of Istakhar, and from the place called Darabghird.

'The striped stuffs of Shiraz are well known; and in the Cura of Istakhar they manufacture fine linen.'

When the public are in possesston of the illustrations promised by Sir Wm. Ouseley, we shall have occasion to recur to the geography of Ebn Haukal; and probably in a manner more satisfactory to our readers, as well as to the learned translator. Ham.n

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ART. V. *Researches, Chemical and Philosophical;* chiefly concerning Nitrous Oxide or dephlogisticated Nitrous Air, and its Respiration. By Humphry Davy, Superintendant of the Medical Pneumatic Institution. 8vo. pp. 580. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

THE subject of this volume has excited considerable expectation, among chemical and medical readers. When Dr. Beddoes announced, last year, the discovery of a new species of air, the inhalation of which produced sensations exquisitely pleasurable, and by means of which he hoped to renovate decayed constitutions, every one was eager to receive farther intelligence of so extraordinary a product. That desire will be amply gratified by the copious dissertation before us: which is divided into four parts; 1. consisting of Researches into the Analysis of Nitric Acid and Nitrous Gas, and the Production of Nitrous Oxide. 2. Researches into the Combinations of Nitrous Oxide, and its Decomposition. 3. Researches relating to the Respiration of Nitrous Oxide, and other Gases. 4. Researches relating to the Effects produced by the Respiration of Nitrous Oxide on different Individuals.

Under the first head, we are presented with an interesting series of *Experiments on Nitric Acid and Ammoniac;* relating to the composition of both which substances, Mr. Davy has corrected some inaccuracies of former writers. His conclusions respecting the specific gravity of nitric acid are as follow:

'We may conclude first, that 100 cubic inches of nitrous acid, such as exists in the aëriform state saturated with oxygene, at temperature 55°, and atmospheric pressure 30,1, weigh 75,17 grains.

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* What must we understand by this mummy annually excavated for the king's use? Was the place a cemetery, and the substance found a mineral tallow similar to that observed at Paris in the *Cemetiere des Innocens? R.*

'Secondly, that 100 grains of it are composed of 68,06 nitrous gas, and 31,94 oxygene. Or assuming what will be hereafter proved, that 100 parts of nitrous gas consist of 55,95 oxygene, and 44,05 nitrogene, of 29,9 nitrogene, and 70,1 oxygene; or taking away decimals, of 30 of the one to 70 of the other.

'Thirdly, that 100 grains of pale green solution of nitrous acid in water, of specific gravity 1,301, are composed of 50,62 water, and 49,38 acid of the above composition.'

A *standard acid* is thus obtained for the chemist.—In the course of this inquiry, an ingenious opinion is suggested, relating to the difference between *nitric* and *nitrous* acids, by a friend of Mr. Davy. He supposes that the nitrous (or orange-coloured) acid 'ought not to be considered as a distinct and less oxygenated state of acid, but simply as nitric or pale acid, holding in solution, that is, loosely combined with, nitrous gas.' [p. 31.]

We shall extract Mr. Davy's account of the process by which the respirable nitrous oxide was produced, and the general view of its properties:

'200 grains of compact nitrate of ammoniac were introduced into a glass retort, and decomposed slowly by the heat of a spirit lamp. The first portions of the gas that came over were rejected, and the last received in jars containing mercury. No luminous appearance was perceived in the retort during the process, and almost the whole of the salt was resolved into fluid and gas. The fluid had a faint acid taste, and contained some undecompounded nitrate. The gas collected exhibited the following properties.—

'*a.* A candle burnt in it with a brilliant flame, and crackling noise. Before its extinction, the white inner flame became surrounded with an exterior blue one.

'*b.* Phosphorus introduced into it in a state of inflammation, burnt with infinitely greater vividness than before.

'*c.* Sulphur introduced into it when burning with a feeble blue flame, was instantly extinguished; but when in a state of active inflammation (that is, forming sulphuric acid) it burnt with a beautiful and vivid rose-colored flame.

'*d.* Inflamed charcoal, deprived of hydrogene, introduced into it, burnt with much greater vividness than in the atmosphere.

'*e.* To some fine twisted iron wire a small piece of cork was affixed: this was inflamed, and the whole introduced into a jar of the air. The iron burned with great vividness, and threw out bright sparks as in oxygene

'*f.* 30 measures of it exposed to water previously boiled, was rapidly absorbed; when the diminution was complete, rather more than a measure remained.

'*g.* Pure water saturated with it, gave it out again on ebullition, and the gas thus produced retained all its former properties.

'*h.* It was absorbed by red cabbage juice; but no alteration of color took place.

'*i.* Its taste was distinctly sweet, and its odor slight, but agreeable.
'*j.* It underwent no diminution when mingled with oxygene or nitrous gas.'

For the description of the apparatus employed, we must refer to the work itself, because it cannot be well understood without the plate.—Mr. Davy found the specific gravity of nitrous oxide greater than he had expected from Dr. Priestley's experiments: 100 cubic inches of this gas, in a state of purity, weigh 50,1 grains, at temperature 50°, and atmospheric pressure 30,7.

As the directions for preparing the nitrous oxide for experiments will be generally interesting, we here insert them:

'When compact nitrate of ammoniac is slowly decomposed, the nitrous oxide produced is almost immediately fit for respiration; but as one part of the salt begins to decompose before the other is rendered fluid, a considerable loss is produced by sublimation.

'For the production of large quantities of nitrous oxide, fibrous nitrate of ammoniac should be employed. This salt undergoes no decomposition till the greater part of its water is evaporated, and in consequence at the commencement of that process, is uniformly heated.

'The gas produced from fibrous nitrate, must be suffered to rest at least for an hour after its generation. At the end of this time it is generally fit for respiration. If examined before, it will be found to contain more or less of a white vapor, which has a disagreeable acidulous taste, and strongly irritates the fauces and lungs. This vapor, most probably, consists of acid nitrate of ammoniac and water, which were dissolved by the gas at the temperature of its production, and afterwards slowly precipitated.

'It is found in less quantity when compact nitrate is employed, because more salt is sublimed in this process, which being rapidly precipitated, carries with it the acid and water.

'Whatever salt is employed, the last portions of gas produced, generally contain less vapor, and may in consequence be respired sooner than the first.

'The nitrate of ammoniac should never be decomposed in a metallic vessel,* nor the gas produced suffered to come in contact with any metallic surface; for in this case the free nitric acid will be decomposed, and in consequence, a certain quantity of nitrous gas produced.

'The apparatus that has been generally employed in the medical pneumatic institution, for the production of nitrous oxide, consists

'1. Of a glass retort, of the capacity of two or three quarts, orificed at the top, and furnished with a ground stopper.

'2. Of a glass tube, conical for the purpose of receiving the neck of the retort: about ,4 inches wide in the narrowest part, 4 feet long, curved at the extremity, so as to be capable of introduction

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'* Except it be gold or platina.'

into an airholder, and inclosed by tin plate to preserve it from injury.

'3. Of airholders of Mr. Watt's invention, filled with water saturated with nitrous oxide.

'4. Of a common air-furnace, provided with dampers for the regulation of the heat.

'The retort, after the insertion of the salt, is connected with the tube, carefully luted, and exposed to the heat of the furnace, on a convenient stand. The temperature is never suffered to be above 500°. After the decomposition has proceeded for about a minute, so that the gas evolved from the tube enlarges the flame of a taper, the curved end is inserted into the airholder, and the nitrous oxide preserved.

'The water thrown out of the airholders in consequence of the introduction of the gas, is preserved in a vessel adapted for the purpose, and employed to fill them again; for if common water was to be employed in every experiment, a great loss of gas would be produced from absorption.

'A pound of fibrous nitrate of ammoniac, decomposed at a heat not above 500°, produces nearly 5 cubic feet of gas; whilst from a pound of compact nitrate of ammoniac, rarely more than 4,25 cubic feet can be collected.

'For the production of nitrous oxide in quantities not exceeding 20 quarts, a mode still more simple than that I have just described may be employed. The salt may be decomposed by the heat of an Argand's lap, or a common fire, in a tubulated glass retort, of 20 or 30 cubic inches in capacity, furnished with a long neck, curved at the extremity; and the gas received in small airholders.

'Thus, if the pleasurable effects, or medical properties of the nitrous oxide, should ever make it an article of general request, it may be procured with much less time, labor, and expence,* than most of the luxuries, or even necessaries, of life.'

We regret that our limits do not permit us to follow the ingenious experimentalist through all his investigations of the affinities of this substance.—We must now proceed to the second general head, *the Combinations of Nitrous Oxide.*

From Mr. Davy's observations on its affinity for water, it appears that the nitrous oxide dissolves in it without combining with water; and that it has less attraction for this fluid than some of the weaker acids have.—On its combination with the gases, he remarks;

'From these experiments we learn, that when nitrous oxide is mingled with either carbonic acid, oxygene, common air, hydrocarbonate, sulphurated hydrogene, hydrogene, or nitrogene, they

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'* A pound of nitrate of ammoniac costs about 5s. 10d. This pound, properly decomposed, produces rather more than 34 moderate doses of air; so that the expence of a dose is about 2d. What fluid stimulus can be procured at so cheap a rate?'

may

may be separated from each other without making any allowance for contraction or expansion: but if a mixture of either muriatic acid, or sulphureous acid gas, with nitrous oxide, is experimented upon; in the absorption of the acid by alkalies, the apparent volume of gas condensed will be less than the real one, by a quantity equal to the sum of expansion from combination. Consequently a correction must be made on account of this circumstance.

'Though alcohol, ether, essential oils, and the fluid inflammable bodies in general, dissolve nitrous oxide with much greater rapidity than water, yet as we are not perfectly acquainted with their action on unabsorbable gases, it is better to employ water for separating nitrous oxide from these substances; particularly as that fluid is more or less combined with all gases, and as we are acquainted with the extent of its action upon them,

'By pursuing the subject of the solution of essential oils in gases, we may probably discover a mode of obtaining them in a state of absolute dryness. For if other gases as well as nitrous oxide, have a stronger affinity for oils than for water, water most probably will be precipitated from them during their solution of oils; and after their saturation with oil, it is likely that they are capable of being deprived of that substance by ammoniac.'

After having detailed a variety of ingenious experiments, which we have not room to particularize, Mr. Davy gives this general opinion respecting the resemblance of the properties of nitrous oxide to acids:

'If we were inclined to generalise, and to place nitrous oxide among a known class of bodies, its properties would certainly induce us to consider it as more analogous to the acids than to any other substances; for it is capable of uniting with water and the alkalies, and is insoluble in most of the acids. It differs, however, from the stronger acids, in not possessing the sour taste, and the power of reddening vegetable blues: and from both the stronger and weaker acids, in not being combinable when in a perfectly free state, at common temperatures, with the alkalies. If it should be proved by future experiments, that condensation by cold gave it the capability of immediately forming neutro-saline compounds with the alkalies; it ought to be considered as the weakest of the acids. Till those experiments are made, its extraordinary chemical and physiological properties are sufficient to induce us to consider it as a body *sui generis*.'

The experiments on the combinations of nitrous oxide with combustible bodies contain some curious facts. Mr. Davy found that the action of the electric spark, long continued, converts nitrous oxide into a gas analogous to atmospheric air, and into nitrous acid.—From the result of many experiments on the decomposition of nitrous oxide by hydrogene, the author concludes that 100 parts of the oxide consist of 63.5 nitrogene, and 36.5 oxygene.—It had been observed that a taper burns in nitrous oxide with a double flame. This appearance Mr. Davy explains from the formation of nitrous acid by the ignition.

The concluding section of this head contains views of so much importance, that we must extract it entire:

'During the decompositions of the combinations of oxygene and nitrogene by combustible bodies, a considerable momentary expansion of the acting substances, and the bodies in contact with them is generally produced, connected with increased temperature; whilst light is often generated to a great extent.

'Of the causes of these phænomena we are at present ignorant. Our knowledge of them must depend upon the discovery of the precise nature of heat and light, and of the laws by which they are governed. The application of general hypotheses to isolated facts can be of little utility; for this reason I shall at present forbear to enter into any discussions concerning those agents which are imperceptible to the senses, and known only by solitary effects.

'Analysis and synthesis clearly prove that oxygene and nitrogene constitute the known ponderable matter of atmospheric air, nitrous oxide, nitrous gas, and nitric acid.

'That the oxygene and nitrogene of atmospheric air exist in chemical union, appears almost demonstrable from the following evidences.

'1st. The equable diffusion of oxygene and nitrogene through every part of the atmosphere, which can hardly be supposed to depend on any other cause than an affinity between these principles.*

'2dly. The difference between the specific gravity of atmospheric air, and a mixture of 27 parts oxygene and 73 nitrogene, as found by calculation; a difference apparently owing to expansion in consequence of combination.

'3dly. The conversion of nitrous oxide into nitrous acid, and a gas analogous to common air, by ignition.

'4thly. The solubility of atmospheric air undecompounded in water.

'Atmospheric Air, then, may be considered as the least intimate of the combinations of nitrogene and oxygene.

'It is an elastic fluid, permanent at all known temperatures, consisting of ,73 nitrogene, and ,27 oxygene. It is decomposable at certain temperatures, by most of the bodies possessing affinity for oxygene. It is soluble in about thirty times its bulk of water, and

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'* That attraction must be called chemical, which enables bodies of different specific gravities to unite in such a manner as to produce a compound in every part of which the constituents are found in the same proportions to each other. Atmospheric air, examined after having been at perfect rest in closed vessels, for a great length of time, contains in every part the same proportions of oxygene and nitrogene; whereas if no affinity existed between these principles, following the laws of specific gravity, they ought to separate; the oxygene forming the inferior, the nitrogene the superior stratum.

'The supposition of the *chemical* composition of atmospheric air, has been advanced by many philosophers. The two first evidences have been often noticed.'

as

as far as we are acquainted with its affinities, incapable of combining with most of the simple and compound substances. 100 cubic inches of it weigh about 31 grains at 55° temperature, and 30 atmospheric pressure.

'NITROUS OXIDE is a gas unalterable in its constitution, at temperatures below ignition. It is composed of oxygene and nitrogene, existing *perhaps* in the most intimate union which those substances are capable of assuming.* Its properties approach to those of acids. It is decomposable by the combustible bodies at very high temperatures, is soluble in double its volume of water, and in half its bulk of most of the inflammable fluids. It is combinable with the alkalies, and capable of forming with them peculiar salts. 100 grains of it are composed of about 63 nitrogene, and 37 oxygene. 100 cubic inches of it weigh 50 grains, at 55° temperature, and 30 atmospheric pressure.

'NITROUS GAS is composed of about ,56 oxygene, and ,44 nitrogene, in intimate union. It is soluble in twelve times its bulk of water, and is combinable with the acids, and certain metallic solutions; it is possessed of no acid properties, and is decomposable by most of the bodies that attract oxygene strongly, at high temperatures. 100 cubic inches of it weigh about 34 grains, at the mean temperature and pressure.

'NITRIC ACID is a substance permanently aëriform at common temperatures, composed of about 1 nitrogene, to 2,3 oxygene. It is soluble to a great extent in water, and combinable with the alkalies, and nitrous gas. It is decomposable by most of the combustible bodies, at certain temperatures. 100 cubic inches of it weigh, at the mean temperature and pressure, nearly 76 grains.'

The third part, intitled *Inquiries into the Effects of Nitrous Oxide when respired by Animals*, contains a distinction between the respirable and non-respirable gases, which will be new to many of our readers. Respirable gases, according to Mr. Davy's acceptation, are those which can be introduced into the lungs of an animal by voluntary inspiration, without regard to their effect in supporting or destroying vitality; non-respirable gases are those which produce a spasmodic constriction of the muscles of the epiglottis, which prevents their admission into the bronchia. The first set of experiments, under this head, proves that the nitrous oxide destroys life, when respired for a certain time by warm-blooded animals. In the next series, the action of hydrogene is compared with that of the nitrous oxide on respiration; and Mr. Davy finds that animals live at least twice as long in nitrous oxide, as in hydrogene or water. He supposes that the oxide acts by producing some change in the state of the blood.

'* For it is unalterable by those bodies which are capable of attracting oxygene from nitrous gas and nitrous acid, at common temperatures.'

On the dissection of animals killed by exposure to the nitrous oxide, the following appearances were observed:

'The lungs are pale brown red, and covered here and there with purple spots; the liver is of a very bright red, and the muscular fibre in general dark. Both the auricles and ventricles of the heart are filled with blood. The auricles contract for minutes after the death of the animal. The blood in the left ventricle, and the aorta, is of a tinge between purple and red, whilst that in the right ventricle is of a dark color, rather more purple than the venous blood.'

We are afterward told that venous blood, when in nitrous oxide, and compared with blood agitated in common air, hydrogene, and nitrogene, was always darker and more purple than the first, and much brighter and more florid than the second and third.—Mr. Davy found that animals are destroyed by the respiration of mixtures of nitrous oxide and hydrogene, nearly in the same time as by pure nitrous oxide. From experiments on two water-lizards, he infers that they die in nitrous oxide in a much shorter period than in hydrogene or pure water.

The subsequent conclusions are drawn from a series of experiments on the effect of this gas, on venous blood, out of the body:

'1st. That when nitrous oxide is agitated in fluid venous blood, a certain portion of the gas is absorbed; whilst the color of the blood changes from dark red to red purple.

'2dly. That during the absorption of nitrous oxide by the venous blood, minute portions of nitrogene and carbonic acid are produced, either by evolution from the blood, or from a decomposition of part of the nitrous oxide.

'3dly. That venous blood impregnated with nitrous oxide is capable of oxygenation; and vice versa; that oxygenated blood may be combined with nitrous oxide.'

In attempting to ascertain the changes produced on nitrous oxide by respiration, Mr. Davy encountered considerable difficulties: but, at length, having converted his mercurial air-holder into a respiring machine, he was enabled to determine the point with accuracy. He then found that nitrous oxide is rapidly absorbed by the venous blood, through the moist coats of the pulmonary veins; and that the residual gas of the lungs consists of nitrogene, mingled with small portions of oxygene and carbonic acid.—A variety of curious experiments follow, into the details of which we shall not enter, as the author has not yet completed his views respecting them:—but the conclusion of this general head is so judiciously and modestly expressed, that we shall lay it before our readers in Mr. Davy's own words:

'The experiments in the first Division of this Research, prove that nitrous oxide when respired by animals, produces peculiar changes in their blood and in their organs, first connected with increased living action; but terminating in death.

'From the experiments in this Division, it appears, that nitrous oxide is rapidly absorbed by the circulating venous blood, and of course its condensed oxygene and nitrogene distributed in the blood over the whole of the system.

'Concerning the changes effected in the principles of the impregnated blood during circulation, and its action upon the nervous and muscular fibre; it is useless to reason in the present state of our knowledge.

'It would be easy to form theories referring the action of blood impregnated with nitrous oxide, to its power of supplying the nervous and muscular fibre with such proportions of condensed nitrogene, oxygene, and light or etherial fluid, as enabled them more rapidly to pass through those changes which constitute their life: but such theories would be only collections of terms derived from known phænomena, and applied by loose analogies of language to unknown things.

'We are unacquainted with the composition of dead organised matter; and new instruments of experiment and new modes of research must be found, before we can ascertain even our capabilities of discovering the laws of life.'

The last Research, in this interesting work, contains *An Account of the Effect of respiring the Nitrous Oxide, on different Individuals.* Mr. Davy seems to have been led to investigate this gas (the dephlogisticated nitrous gas of Dr. Priestley) by the American Dr. Mitchell's Theory of Contagion, which we have had several occasions to notice:

'The fallacy of this Theory was soon demonstrated, by a few coarse experiments made on small quantities of the gas procured from zinc and diluted nitrous acid. Wounds were exposed to its action, the bodies of animals were immersed in it without injury; and I breathed it mingled in small quantities with common air, without remarkable effects. An inability to procure it in sufficient quantities, prevented me at this time, from pursuing the experiments to any greater extent.'

After several ineffectual trials with the gas in a much diluted or impure state, Mr. Davy determined to inhale it pure:

'Having previously closed my nostrils and exhausted my lungs, I breathed four quarts of nitrous oxide from and into a silk bag. The first feelings were similar to those produced in the last experiment; but in less than half a minute, the respiration being continued, they diminished gradually, and were succeeded by a sensation analogous to gentle pressure on all the muscles, attended by an highly pleasurable thrilling, particularly in the chest and extremities. The objects around me became dazzling, and my hearing more acute. Towards the last inspirations, the thrilling increased, the sense of muscular power became greater, and at last an irresistible propensity to

to action was indulged in; I recollect but indistinctly what followed; I know that my motions were various and violent.

'These effects very soon ceased after respiration. In ten minutes, I had recovered my natural state of mind. The thrilling in the extremities, continued longer than the other sensations.'

In the course of his experiments, he was induced to try the effect of the inhalation of other gases, in his own person. We shall extract the very striking account of the feelings produced by respiring pure hydro-carbonate, as the experiment was never hazarded before by any philosopher, and probably will not be repeated:

'For this purpose, I introduced into a silk bag, four quarts of gas nearly pure, which was carefully produced from the decomposition of water by charcoal an hour before, and which had a very strong and disagreeable smell.

'My friend, Mr James Tobin, jun. being present, after a forced exhaustion of my lungs, the nose being accurately closed, I made three inspirations and expirations of the hydrocarbonate. The first inspiration produced a sort of numbness and loss of feeling in the chest and about the pectoral muscles. After the second inspiration, I lost all power of perceiving external things, and had no distinct sensation except a terrible oppression on the chest. During the third expiration, this feeling disappeared, I seemed sinking into annihilation, and had just power enough to drop the mouth-piece from my unclosed lips. A short interval must have passed during which I respired common air, before the objects about me were distinguishable. On recollecting myself, I faintly articulated, "*I do not think I shall die.*" Putting my finger on the wrist, I found my pulse thread-like and beating with excessive quickness.

'In less than a minute, I was able to walk, and the painful oppression on the chest directed me to the open air.

'After making a few steps which carried me to the garden, my head became giddy, my knees trembled, and I had just sufficient voluntary power to throw myself on the grass. Here the painful feeling of the chest increased with such violence as to threaten suffocation. At this moment, I asked for some nitrous oxide. Mr. Dwyer brought me a mixture of oxygene and nitrous oxide. I breathed this for a minute, and *believed* myself relieved. In five minutes, the painful feelings began gradually to diminish. In an hour they had nearly disappeared, and I felt only excessive weakness and a slight swimming of the head. My voice was very feeble and indistinct. This was at two o'clock in the afternoon.

'I afterwards walked slowly for about half an hour, with Mr. Tobin, jun. and on my return, was so much stronger and better, as to believe that the effects of the gas had disappeared: though my pulse was 120 and very feeble. I continued without pain for near three quarters of an hour; when the giddiness returned with such violence as to oblige me to lie on the bed; it was accompanied with nausea, loss of memory, and deficient sensation. In about an hour and half, the giddiness went off, and was succeeded by an excruciating pain

pain in the forehead and between the eyes, with transient pains in the chest and extremities.

'Towards night these affections gradually diminished. At ten, * no disagreeable feeling except weakness remained. I slept sound, and awoke in the morning very feeble and very hungry. No recurrence of the symptoms took place, and I had nearly recovered my strength by the evening.'

Mr. Davy was afterward exposed to considerable inconvenience by attempting to breathe nitrous gas: but we should exceed our limits were we to detail the particulars of this, and of several other experiments of the same nature. We shall, however, extract Mr. D.'s description of his feelings on respiring a quantity of nitrous oxide, after he had been inclosed in an atmosphere of the gas, by being shut up in a *breathing-box* for an hour and a quarter:

'A thrilling extending from the chest to the extremities was almost immediately produced. I felt a sense of tangible extension highly pleasurable in every limb; my visible impressions were dazzling and apparently magnified; I heard distinctly every sound in the room and was perfectly aware of my situation. † By degrees as the pleasurable sensations increased, I lost all connection with external things; trains of vivid visible images rapidly passed through my mind, and were connected with words in such a manner, as to produce perceptions perfectly novel. I existed in a world of newly connected and newly modified ideas. I theorised; I imagined that I made discoveries. When I was awakened from this semi-delirious trance by Dr. Kinglake, who took the bag from my mouth, indignation and pride were the first feelings produced by the sight of the persons about me. My emotions were enthusiastic and sublime; and for a minute I walked round the room perfectly regardless of what was said to me. As I recovered my former state of mind, I felt an inclination to communicate the discoveries I had made during the experiment. I endeavoured to recall the ideas, they were feeble and indistinct; one collection of terms, however, presented itself: and with the most intense belief and prophetic manner, I exclaimed to Dr. Kinglake, "*Nothing exists but thoughts!—the universe is composed of impressions, ideas, pleasures, and pains!*"

It appears, however, that these sensations were not so powerfully excited in some subsequent trials..

In the next division, we are presented with reports of the feelings experienced by several persons on respiring the nitrous oxide. As we have made a large extract from Dr.

'* I ought to observe, that between eight and ten, I took, by the advice of Dr. Beddoes, two or three doses of diluted nitric acid.'

'† In all these experiments, after the first minute, my cheeks became purple.'

Beddoes's

Beddoes's *Notice* on this subject *, we shall pass over those which are now before us.—Respecting the probable efficacy of this gas in diseases, the author speaks with just reserve.—He concludes his book with these words:

'Pneumatic chemistry, in its application to medicine, is an art in infancy, weak, almost useless, but apparently possessed of capabilities of improvement. To be rendered strong and mature, she must be nourished by facts, strengthened by exercise, and cautiously directed in the application of her powers by rational scepticism.'

An account is given in the appendix, of some experiments on the effect of the gases on vegetation. Mr. Davy seems to hint that some advantage may be derived from attending to the action of hydrocarbonate on this process.

From the view which we have taken of this work, we apprehend that our scientific readers will be sufficiently enabled to appreciate its merits. The uncommon ingenuity, the great accuracy, the philosophical candour, and the adventurous perseverance of the author, must ensure him the favourable attention of the public.

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ART. VI. *The Pride of Birth: a Satire.* In Imitation of the Eighth Satire of Juvenal. With Notes Critical and Illustrative, adapted to the Characters and Manners of the present Age. 4to. 3s. Cawthorn. 1801.

THE author of this imitation professes to have departed from the character of his original, in several instances; and in particular, to have substituted gaiety for the sententious dignity of Juvenal. This change of manner must in strictness be said to preclude imitation; yet, if the poignancy of the Roman satirist had been preserved, we should have overlooked some deviations:—but the whole turn of these verses is so unlike Juvenal, that the satirist might have omitted the Latin passages at the bottom of his pages, without prejudice to his own fame. Juvenal is ardent, impetuous, and hardy; his style, though it sometimes departs from the purity of the Augustan age, is nervous, and in general happy:—but the present translator is languid and diffuse; his versification is often drawling and spiritless; and his tendency to prose is so decided, that the jest (where any thing jocular appears) is generally thrown into a note. In the style of the ex-minister at war, to whom the performance is dedicated, we may pronounce it a *negative* imitation.—Justice to this young bard, however, requries us to allow that he may plead more than one example, "*vitiis imitabile*,"

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* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxx. p. 405.

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for his inconsistency; since Pope, in his imitations of Horace, excellent as they are, assumed a style very different from the playfulness of the Roman poet. It becomes, therefore, so much the more necessary for critics to warn young writers against the mistakes of men who are so justly eminent.

After having thus freely expressed our opinion of the general merits of this poem, we shall present our readers with a specimen, from which they may form their own conclusions respecting the execution:

'A generous birth may *there* a lustre throw,
Where *kindred* veins with *kindred* virtue glow:
No boasted sires can cure a son's disgrace,
To *other* crimes they add an *injur'd* race.
Does SPENCER's blood within thy bosom roll,
And SPENCER's blood inspire with SPENCER's soul:
Here make thy boast of birth, 'tis wisely done,
A *noble* sire exalts a *noble* son.
But does that blood no generous worth impart,
And, born of *Kings*, you bear a *peasant*'s heart:
Oh hide thy sires disgrac'd, save half thy shame,
Thy records burn, and take some *humbler* name;
Hide, if thou canst, thou art so nobly born,
And sink like ORLEANS to a beggar's spawn.
'Cease, then; or wouldst thou have us lower bow,
Your worth, my Lord, and not your titles show:
What though thy line to ALFRED's self extend,
Or, higher still, to JAPHET's sons ascend,
A generous mind a borrow'd Fame would hate,
Thyself, and not thy *sires*, must make thee great.
'Let HORSLEY's firmness in thy bosom shine,
Let WENTWORTH's worth and FALKLAND's faith be thine;
Like CHURCHILL, conquer in thy country's cause;
Like KENYON, be the guardian of her laws:
Blush not though Heralds should record thee base,
Thy *worth*, thy *patent*, take the highest place,
And ask'd your Order, fear no fool's rebukes,
But boldly answer,—'Tis above yon *Duke*'s.
'Heroes and Kings are noble sires, 'tis true,
But what are all these noble sires to you?
Nought of these fathers but their names you bear,
That virtue lost which made these names so dear.
You think their titles can their honours *claim*,
But worthless things are sunk by noble *names*.
What should we give our fictive fancy scope,
Call GIFFORD DRYDEN, or MATHIAS POPE,
Though B—D—RE's leaden self should read the strain,
Such POPES would sing, such DRYDENS soar in vain;
Should Laureat PYE in WHARTON's title drone,
Is there who'd read and think 'twas WHARTON's own,

For

For SHAKESPEARE's self would shameless IRELAND pass,
Is there who'd hail the Lion in the Ass?
A change of name should rose a nettle make,
The rose's this, and that the nettle's, take,
Is there an idiot of so foul a nose,
Would smell the nettle and reject the rose?'

Respecting the notes, which compose a large share of this pamphlet, we have little to observe. They abound in political allusions, in compliments to the late ministers, and in satire (or what is meant for satire) on the opposition.—We hope that the author's zeal for the glory of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Wyndham is too disinterested, to be affected by the events which have recently deprived those gentlemen of the powerful patronage which they lately possessed.

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ART VII. *Elements of Perspective;* containing the Nature of Light and Colours, and the Theory and Practice of Perspective, in regard to Lines, Surfaces, and Solids, with its Application to Architecture. To which are added Rules for Painting in Transparent Water Colours By John Wood, Master of the Drawing Academy established at Edinburgh by the Honourable the Board of Trustees for Manufactories, &c. 8vo. pp. 150. and 18 Plates. 6s. Boards, Cawthorn, &c. 1799.

THERE are many subjects of pure curiosity, of which the investigation may be continued without end. Very numerous are the properties of conic sections, and of numbers, which have already been discovered; and many more remain to be elicited. It is difficult to affix limits to the contemplation of these properties; and it is hazardous to pronounce that the pursuit is useless; because that which now appears a barren and mere geometrical truth may hereafter rise to dignity by the explication of natural phænomena. This, however, is not the proper vindication of the study of geometry: without invoking futurity to furnish us with uncertain arguments, it is sufficient to say that a truth answers the great end of its being, if it amuses the mind and satisfies the wants of the intellect;—for there are intellectual as well as corporeal wants.

The sciences afford each other mutual assistance: some are stepping-stones by which we reach others: but in this condition of subserviency, the research of their properties is limited. A mathematician, wishing to read the *Principia*, would not endeavour to penetrate to the curious and recondite properties of the Conic Sections: he would take only what is sufficient for the end which he has in view; that is, he would take the simple and common properties. Since the discovery of the law of universal gravitation, the attention of mathematicians having

having been directed to what are esteemed higher subjects than Conic Sections, they have of late been but little cultivated on their own account; and the bulk of treatises on their properties has been gradually diminishing.

Perspective is an art, and is derived from that branch of Geometry which investigates the projection of a body of any figure whatever, on a plane any how inclined; the projection being made by lines issuing from a given point. Thus generally considered, it presents a boundless field of contemplation; since the figure of bodies may be infinitely varied, and the plane on which the projection is made may be infinitely inclined. In this case, it would be necessary to call in all the powers of analysis to aid the inquiry: but this research would be merely speculative and of pure curiosity; because, when the practical utility is considered, the investigation of the rules and methods of perspective is extremely abridged: since artists require very few rules, and such as will rather prevent them from falling into gross errors, than instruct them to delineate exactly. Suppose an artist has to represent a certain curve, the boundary of some body: if his drawing be such that the eye discovers no fault in it, the object and end of the representation are completely answered; and it would be a needless and unprofitable office to prove by measurement that the delineation is faulty, as not exactly coinciding with that which would be given by geometrical investigation. The eye is the painter's rule and compass, and it is sufficient if the judgment of our vision justifies the portraiture of objects *. Hence it is of little or no consequence, in a practical point of view, to know that the representation of a circular arc, viewed obliquely, ought to be by an elliptical or parabolic arc; and the artist who delineates architectural objects would scarcely put himself to the fruitless trouble of describing an elliptical arc, in order to represent the beads which surround circular columns.

We are not of the opinion of the author quoted in the note below, that perspective is an *un*certain art, for we deem it a *certain* art: that is to say, there is a method of accurately delineating, on a vertical plane, (or on any other with a given inclination,) any object, of which the figure and position are ascertained:—but it is an art soon learnt, and of small efficacy towards forming a painter; and we think that a person may paint most exquisitely, without knowing any one of the geometrical demonstrations on which the rules of perspective are founded.—The

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* "*Nam Geometralem nunquam sunt corpora juxta*
Mensuram depicta oculis, sed qualia visa." FRESNOY.

author

author of the present treatise, it will appear, differs from us in many instances:

'There have, no doubt, been many elementary books published with the same intention; but, as they are designed for persons unacquainted with the mathematics, their authors have of course been under the necessity, instead of explaining the real principles of Perspective, only to furnish the student with the practical method of performing some of the easy problems in this art; which knowledge they regard as the only part necessary to be known for the art of design. And indeed the artists themselves have in general an unfortunate idea, that a knowledge of the mathematics has only a tendency to cramp the freedom of the imagination, and that geometry furnishes rules that are only so many fetters to men of real genius. They assert also, that those persons who distinguish themselves by a strong predilection for mathematical pursuits have their views and sentiments on other subjects remarkably narrow and contracted, their general habits of thinking illiberal and vulgar, and that the mathematical sciences, however important they may be deemed, in fact terminate in speculation. This will be found to be the general language of those men who have paid but a slight attention to subjects of this kind, and are therefore very willing to persuade themselves that the cloud in which they are involved necessarily arises from the subject itself.

'It would be by no means advisable that an artist should enter into those parts of the mathematics which are of an abstruse and a recondite nature; for this again, by distracting his attention, would disqualify him for the practical part of his profession, and make him lose sight of his principal object: but, making the elements of geometry the favourite recreation of his leisure hours, would tend both to improve and enlarge his mind, and render the productions of his imagination more regular and just.

'It is curious and entertaining to observe the many various schemes, methods, and tricks those artists fall upon, who have no other guide but the wandering ideas of an exuberant fancy, and who suppose their art to be of too delicate and aerial a nature to admit of any fixed principles, or to be regulated by any standard. Always apt to over-rate their own abilities, and mistaking the most trifling inventions for discoveries of moment, they are continually obtruding upon the public different schemes and systems of designing and colouring, that serve no other purpose, but to spend their own time, and amuse their acquaintances, often as ignorant as themselves.

'So far, therefore, from agreeing with those persons who have endeavoured to make the practice of Perspective familiar to every capacity, without mathematical knowledge, they have, in my opinion, not only rendered this useful art intricate, puzzling, and discouraging to the learner, but have done a manifest injury to the art of painting itself. For there is no art that I know of, more dependent upon geometry than that of painting. Since lines being what terminate the objects, and disentangle the colours, it furnishes us with the rules

by

by which we work, and ignorant of which the strongest intellect may be fruitlessly or deviously employed.'

Mr. Wood's treatise relates not merely to perspective: he adds some remarks, &c. on the Nature of Light, on the Eye, on Direct Vision, and on Images formed by Reflection. In page 5th we find a faulty definition of the centre of a lens; at least it differs from what is usually given in books of optics.

We must confess that this work does not much please us: it admits subjects which have no connection with perspective, and its discussion of them is not sufficiently full and satisfactory to justify their introduction. As a speculative perspective treatise, it might have been made much more full; and as a practical book it is now much too long. Considerable reading appears in the notes, perhaps rather too sedulously displayed.

R. Wood.

ART. VIII. *Sepulchral Monuments in Great Britain:* applied to illustrate the History of Families, Manners, Habits, and Arts, at the different Periods from the Norman Conquest to the Seventeenth Century. With Introductory Observations. Part II. containing the Fifteenth Century. Folio. pp. 420, and 131 Plates. 9l. 9s. Boards. Nichols, Payne, &c.

Introduction and Indexes to Vol. II. of the Sepulchral Monuments. Folio. pp. ccclii. and 265, with 40 Plates. 6l. 6s. Boards.

ANTIQUITIES furnish a very pleasing study for the inquiring and reflecting mind; and while such large and expensive works as that which is now before us are patronized, there seems to be little reason for Mr. Gough's complaint that this science is 'losing her votaries.' Curiosity is not less solicitous of investigating the past than of anticipating the future. The same principle, which prompted the erection of sepulchral monuments, contributes to make them interesting to posterity; and the man of genius seldom, perhaps, contemplates the memorials of the mighty dead, without cherishing the pleasing hope of being himself remembered beyond the grave. As the most celebrated artists have been employed to record the magnificence and fame of princes, conquerors, and dignified ecclesiastics, their tombs may be considered as forming an instructive lecture on the progress of literature and the arts; and more information, we think, is to be collected from the prosecution of this subject, than may at first be imagined. On Mr. Gough's singular industry in this line of inquiry, we have formerly bestowed ample commendation (see M. Rev. vol. lxxviii. p. 277); and we now owe him the praise of having, by the exercise of great perseverance, completed a mass of information respecting antient *Sepulture*, which

will be sought in vain in the pages of any other individual writer. The Second Part, or Volume, now on our table, is accompanied by an Introduction almost as ponderous and expensive as itself; which treats of the mode of sepulture from the earliest period of history among the Greeks and Romans to the primitive Christians, and of the various ceremonies with which it was accompanied;—of barrows and heaps of stones;—of burning the dead;—of stone chests and coffins;—of the materials in which bodies were shrouded;—of pots found with bodies;—of embalming;—of armorial bearings on tombs in England and Scotland;—of crosses, crosiers, skeletons, figures in shrouds, &c.;—of slabs with brasses and cenotaphs;—of funeral ceremonies and processions;—of shrines, vaults, and mausolea;—of officers appointed to superintend sepulchres, anniversaries, and funeral charges;—of epitaphs on parchment, and of portraits painted over tombs;—of trophies and atchievements;—of habits;—of the different figures on monuments, and of the manner of representing the several attributes of the saints;—of epitaphs and inscriptions;—of alphabets and forms of letters;—of crosses, sigils, and numerals;—of mottoes, rebuses, and punning epitaphs;—of portraits in missals;—with a great variety of other particulars, for the very enumeration of which we can afford neither space nor time. This glance at the contents of the present Introduction will shew, what indeed the author acknowleges, that he has retraced ground over which he had passed already in the introduction to the first volume: but in doing this, he has not laboured in vain; since new matter has been collected, and new light diffused.

This elaborate sepulchral essay commences, like its predecessor, with the patriarchs recorded in the book of Genesis, and mentions Abraham's anxiety for the purchase of a burial-place. From the Jewish, Mr. G. passes rapidly to Grecian and Roman history, noticing the conformity between civilized nations in the article of sepulture. 'Washing the body, (he observes,) was the first decent rite after death; the Greeks with warm water; the modern Jews in warm water with roses and camomile. See the practice of ablution in Euripides, and among the Romans in Virgil; and among the primitive Christians in the case of Dorcas (Acts, ix. 37.); and down to the seventh century. It was the office of women in all these instances.' The practice of anointing the dead prevailed among the Romans. It was also a custom among the antients to weave their own garment, or winding-sheet. After having washed, anointed, dressed, and crowned with flowers, (which last they did in token of the shortness of life,) followed the *Collocatio*, or Προθεσις, or laying out, which was done to shew

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that the deceased had not died a violent death. The use of coffins is of the highest antiquity. In the procession to the pile, or the grave, *lights* were used, which gave the name of *funeral, (funera à funalibus candelis sebo vel cerâ circumdatis dicta censentur*, says Servius;) to which the antients added music and singing, to imply, according to Macrobius's fanciful reason, *the soul's return to the origin of harmony, or heaven.* The Heathens also hired mourners; and at public funerals it was not unusual to introduce buffoons and dancers. At that of Vespasian, a pantomime, representing and caricaturing the emperor himself, was exhibited at the head of the procession. Slaves, manumitted by the will of the deceased, preceded the funeral. To swell the parade, a great number of beds were sometimes carried, on which were placed the images of the deceased's family, which were removed from the temples and public niches for the occasion. Sylla had 6000; Marcellus 600. The Romans vied so much with each other in the splendor of their funerals, that laws of restraint were inserted among those of the twelve tables. In St. Chrysostom's time, it was become a fashion to have horses with mourning trappings led at funerals. Originally, the nearest relations, or the heirs, were the bearers; afterward they were hired persons: but the corpse of the Emperor Augustus was borne on the shoulders of the senators. In succeeding ages, the office of bearing the body was changed into that of supporting the pall; the ignorance of which ceremony has led Aldovera, as Mr. G. remarks, into a pleasant mistake in his account of the funeral of Sir Isaac Newton; who, he tells his countrymen, was carried to Westminster Abbey, the royal burial-place, *on the shoulders* of the Lord High Chancellor and three Peers of the realm.

Among the Greeks, the slain in battle were buried at the public expence. The bones were first arranged under a tent; they were then collected in coffins, according to their tribe, and deposited in a public monument; after which some person appointed by the state pronounced the funeral oration. This custom of funeral eulogies descended to the Romans; who were imitated by the primitive Christians in their orations over the remains of the martyrs; and hence the practice of funeral sermons has descended to us.

There were two modes of disposing of the dead body among the antients, that of inhumation, and that of burning. The former was certainly the older custom; and the latter prevailed among the Romans, as Pliny tells us, from the practice of digging up the bodies in the civil wars. Many families, however, adhered to the old mode; while others preferred the destruction of the body on the funeral pile. When this new

fashion was once introduced, it was probably continued as a family distinction.

Sepulchres were private property, and the spot chosen for them was as near the high road as possible; whence the propriety of the epitaph or inscription being addressed to the traveller, (*Siste, viator,*) which has been absurdly imitated when the place of interment was transferred from the way-side to the chancel or the cloister. The usual form of the heathen epitaph is well known.—The antients had also rites subsequent to funerals, attended with a variety of ceremonies and superstitions. The best idea of a Roman private funeral, says Mr. Gough, may be formed from the directions given by Propertius to his Cynthia, in Eleg. x. 17—36.

A considerable addition is made by Mr. G., in the Introduction now before us, to the history of those tumuli called *barrows*, which are of the remotest antiquity, and are found in all quarters of the world. Herodotus, the father of history, mentions the barrow of Alyattes, the second of that name, king of Lydia, father of Crœsus, raised 2363 years ago, and seen by Dr. Chandler in A.D. 1764, five miles from Sart, the antient Sardis. This tumulus or barrow, formed by the joint exertions of the merchants, the labourers, and the prostitutes, was about a mile in circumference, one thousand three hundred feet broad, and terminated with a piece of water, called the Gygean Lake, still remaining. According to the same historian, the Gerrhi, a people of Scythia, raised barrows; and it is to be observed that they are also to be found in America. These are not only the most simple but the most durable memorials; and the custom of their erection continued through a long series of ages. The place of the interment of Achilles was thus distinguished, whose barrow is 620 years older than that of Alyattes; and Pharamond was buried A.D. 428, under one of these conical heaps.

So closely has Mr. G. investigated this matter, that to him there appears no Gordian knot in the whole system of barrow-burial. He observes that barrows are not positive proofs of a battle, but in America are necessary appendages of great settlements. It is farther remarked that much of the antient dress, particularly of the fastenings of it, may be learnt from the ornaments found in tumuli: but the relics there interred are not always indications of pagan sepulture, since many Christian rites are founded on the Gentile, and in the early ages of Christianity were blended together; so that, at the first glance, it may be difficult to decide whether the tumuli belonged to Pagans or to Christians.—Some additional particulars on this subject will be found in our *Appendix* to Vol. xxxiv. (published with this Review,) p. 480, &c.

From the practice of barrow-interment, originated the custom among our ancestors, of covering their burying-places with heaps of stones, called *Cairns;* to contribute to which was esteemed a mark of respect to the deceased. Hence "I'll add a stone to your cairn" was formerly a proverbial expression of friendship among the Highlanders.

The *Cromlech*, says Mr. Gough, was *somehow* a Danish monument. This remark would have been equally valuable without the *somehow*.—We are, however, less disposed to censure this laborious antiquary for any verbal inelegancy, than for his partiality to the monkish ecclesiastics of past times, and for his omission of a just castigation of their craft and villany. His account of *stone coffins* introduces the mention of the boy eight years old, crucified by the Jews at Lincoln, A. D. 1255, as the ecclesiastics of that time gave out, in derision of the crucifixion of our Blessed Saviour. He gravely adds, from M. Paris, in the following page, that the Jews fattened the child with milk for ten days before they crucified him. We are surprized that this wicked calumny on the Jews, invented for the purpose of plundering that defenceless people, should be narrated by any modern historian without the most pointed indignation. When Mr. G. describes the structure of this child's coffin, by means of which the priests of the day were enabled to play tricks with his blood; and records other stories of children crucified by Jews, which in other places were also made pretexts for extortion; we are astonished that he should proceed thus to sum up the evidence: 'Whether the child was actually *crucified*, it is now impossible to ascertain: that it was murdered in some very cruel manner, we have every traditional and historical evidence to believe. For we cannot suppose, even in times when the laws were not so well defined, and the administration of justice was more arbitrary, that so many would have been found guilty and have suffered for a crime, if there had been no foundation for the accusation,'—So far from there being any impossibility in this supposition, we conceive that it will occur to most of Mr. G.'s readers. The circumstances observed on opening the coffin stamp no authenticity on the calumnious relation. A boy may have been cruelly put to death, or marked after death with five wounds, in imitation of the five wounds of Christ; and this transaction might readily be imputed to the Jews, as a pretext for sentencing them to death, and confiscating their property. To believe otherwise would be credulity in the extreme. No contemporary historian deserves credit when he relates such improbabilities; and good sense, as well as Christian charity, forbids faith on such occasions. Notwithstanding Mr. G.'s farther assertion, that 'it is

scarcely possible to doubt the truth of such facts, or to suppose them the practice of the times to extort money from a body of men on other accounts sufficiently obnoxious;' we are of opinion that every liberal reader will put this very construction on the circumstances recorded. After the Jews had so severely suffered for one crime of this kind, would they repeat it in the various instances in which they here stand charged with it? When we read of children stolen and kept concealed for a year, of their being fattened with milk, of being crucified, and then buried with the body covered over with Hebrew inscriptions, we lament the credulity of the age, and the horrible consequences of that, servility! but let all such stuff be now treated with the contempt which it deserves.—We have perhaps said enough on this point; and yet we cannot refrain from reiterating our astonishment at Mr. G.'s doubt that the motive in this calumny and persecution of the Jews was avarice, when he adds, 'It appears, indeed, that in the first of the instances here recited, the crime was commuted for a large sum of money: in that at Lincoln, death and confiscation kept pace with each other; but in the others no mention is made of any fine.' If the fine be not mentioned, it must be supposed that there was no departure from the ordinary practice in these cases.—Our readers are intitled to an apology for having been detained so long on such a subject.

After having detailed at some length M. Thouret's account of a very extraordinary change to which the human body, under certain circumstances, is subject after death,—composed from observations made by him on the removal of bodies from the church and church-yard of the Holy Innocents, at Paris*,—Mr. Gough remarks: (p. cii.)

'These facts serve to shew how little foundation there is for the opinion commonly entertained relative to the conversion of the dead body into earth, no such appearance having been observed in any of the coffins that were entire. Neither is what is usually imagined true, that the body is, in general, destroyed by worms, as these are found only near the surface of the earth, or in bodies that have been exposed to the air. M. Thouret's observations have convinced him, that human bodies consigned to the earth insensibly exhale and evaporate in volatile principles; and for this reason it is, he thinks, that the soil of burial-places does not perceptibly accumulate.'

We shall leave our readers to their own speculations on this passage; and from the immediate subject of death, let us turn to contemplate the display of pride and vanity on the monuments

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* Our readers have had various accounts of these facts and observations, in different volumes of our Review.

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of the dead. Mr. Dallaway * is probably correct in stating that the custom of having armorial bearings on the shield began with the monuments of the crusaders; for we find that few persons in England quartered arms before 1388; so that it should seem that the fashion of armorial bearings, which are now displayed with such pride, sprang from the most mad and disgraceful projects in which the nations of Europe ever engaged.

Having mentioned, in our account of Mr. Dallaway's Anecdotes of the Arts †, that the general practice of antient Heathens was to abstain from melancholy representations in their cenotaphs, urns, and hypogeia, in opposition to the custom among modern Christians of figuring the most shocking representations of death on monuments and tomb-stones; we deem it proper to insert what Mr. G. has advanced on this subject, though in opposition to our own remark:

'Skeletons are not unfrequent on the monuments of classical antiquity: Count Caylus has given one in a cave or catacomb near the antient Sydon; but he describes it as a body wrapt up in funeral linen. Gori describes a sarcophagus on which, among the other figures, was Pluto in his chariot carrying off a soul, preceded by Mercury going into a round building, near which lay a skeleton. In the *Museum Florentinum* by Gori, Tab. xc. f. 3. is on a gem "*bubulcus duplici canens tibia saltanti mortis sceleto.*" Gori says, a figure of death was brought to antient feasts; see Burman in Petron. c. 34. *Larva argentea.*

'Hippocrates had consecrated to Apollo, in his temple at Delphi, a brazen skeleton, which Pausanias thus describes: *Εν τοις αναθημασι του Απολλωνος μιμημα ην χαλκου κρονικωτερου κατεσαρκος τε ηδη τας σαρκας και τα οστα υπολειπομενω μονα.*'

This extract by no means establishes the position with which it commences. On the doctrine of the grammar, *exceptio confirmat regulam*, our assertion maintains its ground. Most of the instances here detailed do not relate to monuments. It is certain that the skeleton was not a favourite figure with the antients, and their artists very rarely exhibited it even in the repository of the dead.

As it is impossible to follow this author regularly through the great variety of matter which he has brought together in this Introduction, our account must consist rather of detached specimens than of a regular analysis; for we have not only descriptions of the monuments of the Greeks and Romans, and of our own tombs and chapels, but also of the superb Mausolea of the East. We must pass over much that is worth

* "Inquiries into the Science of Heraldry," p. 104.

† See Rev. Jan. 1800. vol. xxxiv.

the notice of those who are studying sepulchral antiquities, and content ourselves with one or two additional passages from this elaborate preface.

Notwithstanding his ardor in exploring our churches for the tombs which they contain, Mr. G. manifests great humanity, and a proper consideration for the living, in reprobating the pernicious custom of burying in our places of public worship. He recommends cemeteries out of towns and cities, and gives an account of an extensive receptacle of this kind at Pisa.

Much space is dedicated to the subject of monumental devices, dates, and inscriptions; and many instances are given of the false wit and bad taste which our ancestors exhibited: as BRE on a tun, for Breton; MOR on a tun, for Morton: the letters s i l k with a horse represented, for the name *Silkstede*; and a few vine tendrils scattered over a tun, for the name of *Mydylton*.

'The composition of epitaphs, (Mr. G. remarks, p. cclxix.) must be referred to the depositaries of every species of learning, the religious. The names of our early epitaph-makers are as difficult to ascertain as those of our architects or painters. In the fifteenth century we are sure of John Whethamstead, Abbot of St. Albans; whose verses recorded by Weaver, do honour to his monastery, already distinguished by producing so many learned men. We trace his munificence and poetry in all the churches of its dependance; and in his period, for at least fifty years, from 1392 to 1464, we trace also the revival of classical literature among us.'—

'Leonine verses, which are often found on tombs, are properly Roman hexameter or pentameter rhimed, in which measure, sense and syntax are sacrificed to sound and jingle. Pasquier ascribes them to Leoninus, a French monk of St. Victor at Marseilles about 1135, the most popular and almost only Latin poet of his time in France; but the epitaphs of William Warren, Earl of Surrey in our own country, and William the Conqueror in France, are proofs that Leonine verse obtained before Leoninus.'—

'Mr. Warton asserts that the quatrain stanza, with alternate rhyme, was scarcely ever used, under any circumstances, by the elder poets, except in translations; on which Mr. Denne observes, "I am rather inclined to think that very many pieces of this kind of metre, for instance ballads, have perished, because committed to memory and tradition only; and I am clear it is to be met with in a species of versifying which the historian of English Poetry has not noticed, and that is the sepulchral. Whilst pursuing the enquiry I discovered more antient epitaphs in the vulgar tongue than I had expected to have seen, and it added to my surprize that so many of them were in rhyme, and two of them solely in two quatrain stanzas, and all the three are in the sixteenth century.—It is an obvious remark, that these epitaphs were preserved in consequence of their being carved in stone: *ære perennius*, because not fusible, and so easily transmutable into silver."

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If the use of *brass* has been a temptation to violate the repositories of the dead, the expensive attempts of the rich to secure posthumous reputation, by the use of precious metals on their tombs, have only contributed to the more early extinction of their names.

Instead of following Mr. G. into Salisbury cathedral, where he comments on the alterations which it has undergone, we shall close our notice of this Introduction with the account of a Monkish funeral, with which it concludes:

" *Processio quedam funebris antiqua, quâ cadaver vespillonibus tedas ferentibus precessum est, et Fratribus Mendicantibus asportatum, sequente magnâ collachrymantium turbâ.*

1. *Vespillones atratis vestibus cereos magnos cadaveri prèferentes.*
2. *Frater niger, sive predicator, ordinis Sancti Dominici.*
3. *Frater leucopheatus, sive minor, ordinis Sancti Francisci.*
4. *Frater albus, sive Carmeliticus, ordinis beate Marie de Monte Carmeli.*
5. *Frater Eremiticus, ordinis sancti Augustini.*
6. *Consanguinei, affines, proximi, pauperes, populique plurimi alii subsequentes condolentesque.*

" *Notandum est, quod cùm unicuique domui mendicantium aliquam eleemosinam dono dederit vir mortuus, tum cadaver ejus veste fratris mendicantis indutum est; idemque uniuscujusque ordinis frater unus linteolis ad ecclesiam sepulchrum versùs asportat, et in hunc modum eorum omnium confratri agnoscitur mortuus, et bonorum operum cujuscunque ordinis mendicantium (uti asseritur) fit particeps. Nec mirum igitur, quòd super tumulos suos, et monumenta sepulchralia, laicorum etiam mortuorum effigies, vestibus religiosis a sculptoribus indutæ, non rarò videntur expressæ.** "

Having dismissed the prefatory matter, we come now to speak of Mr. G.'s Second Volume; which, though it will be found to furnish an ample feast to the monumental antiquary, we must dispatch with all possible brevity. It contains an account of nearly six hundred monuments, erected to the memory of persons who flourished in the fifteenth century, and is embellished and illustrated with one hundred and thirty-one large copper-plates. It commences with the monument of Geffrey Chaucer, the father of English Poetry, who died in 1400, in the reign of Henry IV.; and finishes with that of the Abbess Harvey, who died in 1500, in the reign of Henry VII. We cannot be expected to give even a list of the tombs of kings, nobles, bishops, warriors, &c. which are here particularly mentioned, with their epitaphs exhibited at length: it must suffice for us to extract one specimen from this descriptive catalogue of the monuments of the fifteenth century; which shall be part of the account of that of William of Wykeham, in the year 1404; whose monument, if not of a

* Harl. MSS. 4938. p. 11.

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species peculiar to this age, was very prevalent in it, viz. the *Sepulchral Chapel.*

'The brightest name in the list of our architects is that artist and patron of arts, WILLIAM of Wykeham; a prelate whose magnificent charities yet exist, both in the benefits he calculated for posterity, and in the edifices erected on his own designs for perpetuating those pious bounties; who, from being clerk of the works, rose to be Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Chancellor, and Prime Minister to Edward III.'—'His buildings at Queenborough are levelled with the ground. The principal gate of his castle at Windsor happily withstood an injudicious levelling; and the castle itself looks down with disdain on the modern erections that occupy its ditch. His cathedral remains unblemished by modern taste, and his literary foundations flourish in unimpaired splendor. His architect at Winchester was William Winford, whose name should be added to the list of our ancient builders, though he were only the master-mason or *cementarius*. As he was thought equal to the execution of a church, it is probable that the execution of the Bishop's sepulchral chapel was also committed to him.

'This is called in his will a *new* building (*capella per me de* novo *constructa*). Though the other ornaments of his oratory are destroyed, yet his monument remains there intire and unhurt to this day. It is of white marble of very elegant workmanship, *considering the time*, with his effigies in pontifical robes lying along upon it; and on a plate of brass running round the edge of the upper table of it, is the following inscription in Latin verse, of the style of that age.

"Wilhelmus dictus Wykeham jacet hic nece victus,
Justius ecclesie praesul, reparavit eamque:
Largus erat bapifer: probat hoc cum divite pauper.
Conciliis patriæ regni fuerat bene dexter.
Hunc docet esse pium fundatio collegiorum:
Oxoniæ primum stat, Wintoniaeque secundum.
Jugiter oretis tumulum quicunque videtis,
Pro tantis meritis ut sit ubi vita perennis."

'The small prints of this chapel and monument, from a drawing of Isaac Taylor the surveyor, prefixed to Bishop Lowth's life of this great prelate, have done it as much justice as the scale permitted. His crosier, preserved in the chapel of New College, is a fine specimen of the elegant arts among us; and an instance, as Mr. Walpole observes, "how well the pomp of prelacy was served by ingenious artists."

'Sepulchral chapels came more in fashion in this century; by which I mean those which were erected professedly for the interment of the founder, and in which his own body was actually buried. For in the preceding centuries the many chapels that sided the nave and choir both of our principal and parochial churches were receptacles of the dead, and in many instances appropriated to lords of manors and their families, whether those lords were their founders or not. It was also no uncommon thing to build chapels for the purpose of saying mass for the souls of the founders thereof, whose bodies were deposited at some distance from them: as that of the Black Prince in

in the undercroft, and of Henry IV. in the North wall of the choir at Canterbury. The chapels that incircle the choir at Tewksbury have an uniformity which bespeak most of them to be the work of one abbot in the preceding century. But the instances of chapels erected for the express purpose of depositing a particular patron or family abound in the present and succeeding century, insomuch that, the name of the saint to whom the chapel was dedicated has been absorbed in that of the bishop or lord who erected it.'

After having extracted a passage from Lowth, on the situation of Wykeham's chapel, Mr. Gough adds:

'The respect paid to this sepulchral chapel by Cromwell's express care, when his soldiers committed so much havock in this church, reflects honour on his memory. Nor is less attention paid to it by those students to whom Wykeham was so liberal a benefactor. I heartily wish the silly mischievousness of the students at Westminster were as well restrained, who, to the eternal reproach of their superiors, to whose care the church and school are committed, are suffered to deface the finest specimens of antient and modern statuary with daily havock; of which so many fresh proofs have occurred since the publication of the first volume of this work.'

We trust that the hint, with which this extract concludes, will not pass unnoticed by those to whose consideration it is particularly directed.—We shall only add, in conclusion, that, as the Gothic architecture appears to have flourished in great perfection during the fifteenth century, many of the monuments here detailed are beautiful specimens of art, and merit the contemplation of those who wish to study the most improved and finished Gothic. In the next century, the Grecian style became blended with it, producing that barbarous and heterogeneous assemblage with which all correct taste must be completely disgusted.

The numerous copper-plates in this work are beautifully engraved; and neither attention nor expence seems to have been spared to gratify the lovers of antiquity. It may truly be remarked, that Mr. Gough has been uncommonly alive among the monuments of the dead.

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ART. IX. *Secret Memoirs of the Court of Petersburg:* particularly towards the End of the Reign of Catharine II. and the Commencement of that of Paul I. Forming a Description of the Manners of Petersburg at the Close of the Eighteenth Century; and containing various Anecdotes, collected during a Residence of Ten Years in that Capital. Together with Remarks on the Education of the Grand-Dukes, the Manners of the Ladies, and the Religion of the People. Translated from the French. 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. (2d Edit. one Vol. 8vo. 7s. Longman and Co. 1800.

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RUSSIA formerly occupied, in every sense of the word, the back ground in the politics of Europe: but of late it has been

been brought forwards on the stage, and the circumstances of its history are sought with peculiar avidity. While statesmen have endeavoured to develope the schemes of gigantic ambition which the cabinet of that country is said to cherish, others have satisfied themselves with delineating the character of its court, and the portraits of its chief personages. These representations may gratify curiosity, though they will administer no source of pleasing reflection. The memoirs of a people rising into civilization might be expected to afford lessons of simplicity and virtue; and even the court might be supposed to exhibit a degree of decorum not to be found in states long corrupted by refinement and luxury: but how little will the detail now before us accord with such ideas! While the inhabitants of the Russian Empire have, in general, remained rude and illiterate, the court has displayed a splendour and a voluptuousness which have not been surpassed in those of the most polished people, and its history is the picture of gross vice and shameless profligacy. When the august wearers of crowns sanction lawless indulgence by their example, vice assumes an effrontery and a consequence which are highly detrimental to national morality. While we therefore lament the errors of sovereigns in this respect, an ample tribute of praise must be demanded for the illustrious occupiers of the British throne; who, in the most corrupting and seducing situation of supreme power, have manifested in their own persons a rigid adherence to virtue. What a contrast do these Secret Memoirs exhibit! Here we are presented with a narrative of the private life of a sovereign, which, though the translator has softened and curtailed it, is yet too licentious to receive the *imprimatur* of strict delicacy.

We are not informed who was the author of this work, nor is the name of the English editor prefixed: but we have not heard its authenticity disputed; and the translator's advertisement says that 'the writer was well acquainted with the court, and was resident in the capital and near the person of the empress, during the last ten years of her reign.' He remarks that 'history has hitherto been a collection only of chosen events artfully wrought up so as to give relief to a few individuals, and form a picture that shall be striking to the eye. Facts that admit of no dispute are pearls and garnets, which the historian selects at his pleasure, and threads them on a black string or a white, as shall best suit the complexion of his work: truth never appears but when it is convenient.' As this is too much the character of what is termed historic composition, it should not be perused with unlimited confidence; nor ought the intentions and views of the writer to be disregarded. If he be

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anonymous, we wish him at least to discover a praise-worthy motive. This biographer of the Court of Russia keeps us in the dark respecting his motives and prejudices; and his work is left to speak for itself.

The Empress Catharine II. is drawn with a masterly pencil: but her frailties and passions as a woman are brought too much forwards, and with too little reprobation. The reader will perceive the truth of this remark from the following delineation of her character:

'She had two passions, which never left her but with her last breath: the love of man, which degenerated into licentiousness; and the love of glory, which sunk into vanity. By the first of these passions, she was never so far governed as to become a Messalina, but she often disgraced both her rank and her sex: by the second, she was led to undertake many laudable projects, which were seldom completed, and to engage in unjust wars, from which she derived at least that kind of fame which never fails to accompany success.'—

'Let not the misfortunes and abuses of her reign give to the private character of this princess too dark and repulsive a shade! She appeared to be thoroughly humane and generous, as all who approached her experienced: all who were admitted to her intimacy were delighted with the good-natured sallies of her wit: all who lived with her were happy. Her manners were gay and licentious, but she still preserved an exterior decorum, and even her favourites always treated her with respect. Her love never excited disgust, nor her familiarity contempt. She might be deceived, won, seduced, but she would never suffer herself to be governed. Her active and *regular* life, her moderation, firmness, fortitude, and even sobriety, are moral qualities which it would be highly unjust to ascribe to hypocrisy. How great might she not have been, had her heart been as well governed as her mind! She reigned over the Russians less despotic than over herself; she was never hurried away by anger, never a prey to dejection, and never indulged in transports of immoderate joy. Caprice, ill-humour, and peevishness formed no part of her character, and were never perceived in her conduct. I will not decide, whether she were truly great, but she was certainly beloved.'

It is farther added: 'Her crimes were the crimes of her station, and *not of her heart*: the terrible scenes of Ismail and of Prague appeared to her court to be humanity itself.' They could not have been very shocking to Catharine's own mind, if it be true, as we are afterward informed, that 'she thirsted for the blood of all the inhabitants of Warsaw;' and that 'at her palace of Tauris she constantly dined with the two pictures of the sacking of Otchakof and Ismail before her eyes; in which the painter has represented, with the most hideous accuracy, the blood flowing in streams, the limbs torn from the bodies and still palpitating, the demoniac fury of the murderers, and the convulsive

convulsive agonies of the murdered.' It may be observed that the person, who can plan bloody wars, can view with complacency bloody pictures: but we cannot in these instances admit of any compliment paid to the heart, nor allow the merit of humanity to those who "wade through slaughter" to the gratification of their ambition. Conquest and success in war, detached from all considerations of justice and virtue, have been termed *glorious;* an error in the writers of poems and histories, for which nations have paid, and will perhaps continue to pay, with oceans of human blood. The biographer is forced at last to be of this opinion; which he expresses in the following animated apostrophe:

'O Catharine! dazzled by thy greatness, of which I have had a near view; charmed with thy beneficence, which rendered so many individuals happy; seduced by the thousand amiable qualities that have been admired in thee, I would fain have erected a monument to thy glory: but torrents of blood flow in upon me, and inundate my design: the chains of thirty millions of slaves ring in my ears, and deafen me; the crimes which have reigned in thy name call forth my indignation. I throw away my pen, and exclaim, "Let there be henceforth no glory without virtue! Let injustice and depravity be transmitted with no other laurels to posterity than the snakes of Nemesis!"

A particular account is given of the *Favourites*, as they are mildly termed; whose office made a distinct place at court, and on whom the partiality and liberality of the Empress conferred the greatest ascendency. The mean and servile homage, that was paid to the reigning idol, cannot be better delineated than by the following anecdote: 'Zubof (the empress's last favourite) being one day hunting, stopped with his suite in the road from Petersburg to Tzarsko-selo. The courtiers who were going to court, the couriers, the post, all carriages, and all the peasants, were stopped: no one dared pass till the young man thought proper to quit the road; and he staid in it more than an hour waiting for his game.'

The scene changes from the mysteries of the *Bona Dea* of the North, to the fooleries and absurdities of her successor; of whom many ridiculous anecdotes are exhibited. The commencement of Paul's reign was rather auspicious: but the hopes which were then formed soon vanished, and his proscriptions, orders, and general employments, manifested the extreme littleness of his mind. The following circumstances are here related:

'Exercising one day his regiment of cuirassiers, the horse of an officer threw him. Paul ran furiously towards him, crying, "Get up, rascal."—"Your Highness, I cannot, I have broken my leg." Paul spat upon him, and retired swearing.

'Passing

'Passing at another time unexpectedly and secretly by one of his guard-houses, the officer, not knowing him, did not order out his men: upon which he instantly turned back, boxed the ears of the officer, and ordered him to be disarmed, and put under arrest.

'One day, travelling from Tzarsko-selo to Gatshina, of which the road was in the middle of a marshy forest, he suddenly recollected something, and ordered the coachman to return. "Presently, your Highness," said the coachman; "the road is here too narrow."—"How, rascal," cried Paul, "wo'nt you turn immediately?" The coachman, instead of answering, hastened to a spot where it was possible to comply; Paul, however, called to his equerry, and ordered him to arrest and punish the rebellious coachman. The equerry assured him that he would turn in a moment. Paul flew into a passion with the equerry also: "You are a pitiful scoundrel like himself," said he. "Let him overturn the carriage, let him break my neck, but let him obey me, and turn the instant I command him." During the dispute the coachman succeeded in turning, but Paul had him chastised on the spot.

'Since his accession, one of his horses stumbled with him in one of the streets of Petersburg: he alighted immediately, held a sort of council with his attendants, and the horse was condemned to receive fifty lashes with a whip. Paul caused them to be given on the spot, before the populace, and counted himself the strokes, saying, "There, Sir, that is for having stumbled with the emperor."

The head title to Chap. V. stands thus: '*Has Paul reason to fear the fate of Peter III.?*' a question which seems to intimate that such a suspicion was entertained, though the writer of these Memoirs admits not the probability of its being realized. As it is not necessary, however, that an historian should be endued with the spirit of prophecy, his ignorance of the future will not impeach his testimony in relating the past: but time has proved that this Frenchman was no decypherer of Russian destinies. Paul has *suddenly* disappeared; and his son Alexander *reigns in his stead:* of whom the following character is here given:

'He inherits from Catharine magnanimity of sentiment and an unalterable equality of temper; a mind just and penetrating, and uncommon discretion; with the alloy, however, of a cautious disposition, a circumspection unsuitable to his age, and which might be taken for dissimulation, did it not evidently proceed rather from the delicate situation in which he was placed between his father and grandmother, than from his heart, which is naturally frank and ingenuous. He possesses his mother's stature and beauty, as well as her mildness and benevolence, while in none of his features does he resemble his father. Paul, conjecturing the intentions of Catharine in favor of this son, has always felt coldly towards him; at the same time he discovers in him no resemblance of character, and no conformity of taste with himself; for Alexander appears to do what his father requires of him, from a principle of filial duty rather than com-

pliance with his own inclinations. His humanity has acquired him the hearts of the soldiers, his good sense the admiration of the officers; he is the constant mediator between the emperor and those unhappy persons who, by some trifling neglect, may provoke his anger. He requires not the dignity of Grand-Duke of Russia to inspire sentiments of love and interest; nature has richly endowed him with the most amiable qualities, and his character of heir to the greatest empire in the world, cannot render them indifferent to humanity. Heaven, perhaps, destines him to render thirty millions of people more free than they are at present, and more worthy of being so.

'His character, however, though amiable, is passive.'

Other characters are delineated with a masterly pencil; particularly that of Gen. Suvarof, who is represented to have been 'a monster with the body of an ape and the soul of a bull-dog:' but we must quit the contemplation of persons, to notice the general subjects of the Second Volume, viz. *What Revolutions may be expected to take place in Russia—National Character—Religion—Female Government—Education—and Description of the Tauric Palace.*

The writer is persuaded that Russia is the last place in Europe which will experience revolution: yet he perceives symptoms of its being in training for that event, among which he reckons Paul's proscription of printing-houses in his dominions; for, says he, 'by attempting to suppress learning and knowlege, he has rendered them the greatest service of which he was capable.' The intermediate step to popular revolution is an enlightened aristocracy, for which Russia is said to be already ripe. It is confessed, however, that at present nothing can be done with the people; 'whose clock has not yet struck the hour of liberty.'

In the chapter on the *National Character*, we meet with the following picture of the Russian peasant, contrasted with the superior classes:

'The Russian peasant, without property, without religion, without morals, without honor, is hospitable, humane, willing to serve, gay, faithful, and brave: the farther you penetrate into the country remote from cities, the better you find him; the most savage is always the worthiest man, the farthest from the capital is the nearest to virtue; in a word, he has all those innate qualities, which remind us of patriarchal manners; his vices are only adventitious. The remains of barbarism, still exhibited by the most enlightened part of the nation, present a disgusting contrast. This barbarism is displayed in vulgarity of manners, an insulting contempt of mankind in general, disdain of inferiors, and servile fear of superiors, indifference to everything tending to improvement, ignorance of the forms of society, insolent pride, baseness, immodesty, want of patriotism and public spirit, but above all, the want of that honor which sometimes nearly answers the end of probity, and even of virtue. The half enlightened

ened Russian is the most abject of men; he crawls like the worm, which invites the foot of the oppressor to crush him.

'This semi-barbarian is peculiarly fit for the trade of a courtier; for he is equally cruel, covetous, cowardly, and cunning: but, when speaking of a Russian, we must not affix to the word courtier those ideas of urbanity, elegance of manners, and delicacy of mind, with which the courtier is embellished in other countries.'

To this description, it is added that the Russians are extremely addicted to drunkenness, and are quite Spartans in their notions of *theft*. As a counter-balance, however, it is mentioned to their credit that they do not practise duelling, have not been prompted to massacre by religious fanaticism, and are extremely hospitable and courageous.—The veteran soldiers are said to be the hardiest of men: 'Reeking from the vapour bath, they roll themselves naked in the snow, and sleep on a bed of ice.' From the severest toil they pass to the most indolent repose, gorge themselves with impunity after long abstinence, and, with a biscuit and an onion in their pocket, will travel sixty versts a day.

This author evinces peculiar energy in his animadversions on the established *Religion* of Russia. He pronounces the Greek church to be a most absurd sect of Christianity, and represents its priests as the most despicable and despised of all persons in the country. Between this and the Catholic Church, though they are similar in their general features, one very striking difference subsists. In the latter, a man cannot marry and be a priest; while in the former he cannot be a priest without being married, and must quit his spiritual functions on his wife's decease. Necessary, however, as women are to the priesthood, they are not allowed to have *souls*; yet they are truly masculine, assert the privilege of petticoat government, and by their habits wear out that squeamish feeling called modesty. The Russian women are indeed represented as capable of reviving the race of Amazons.—We pass over other particulars, in which, we trust, the Russian ladies are here rather caricatured than pourtrayed.

It may be unnecessary to remark that *Education* can have made no great progress in Russia. Ignorance and barbarism for the most part maintain their empire; foreigners, since the French Revolution, have been viewed with suspicion; and Russian literature glimmers too faintly to enlighten that vast region of darkness.

In the description of the Tauric Palace, is introduced an account of the very splendid and costly entertainment given by Potemkin to the Empress Catharine.

To conclude: these memoirs contain a great variety of amusing anecdotes, which are given perfectly in the French manner. It is impossible to peruse them without pitying the subjects of the Russian Empire, and wishing them a better system; which the operations of time, and the gradual diffusion of knowlege, may ultimately confer.

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ART. X. *Quatuor Evangelia Græce. Textum receptum, signis distinctum ad instar Origenianæ* ΤΩΝ Ο'. *recensionis, edidit* J. White, *S. T. P. Ling. Arab. Prof.—Syriacæ Philoxenianæ Novi Testamenti Versionis Interpres.* 8vo. pp. 335. Printed at Oxford.

ALL Christians, who appeal to the Scriptures as the only genuine basis of faith, must allow it to be a matter of infinite importance to ascertain the purity of the sacred text; and they must esteem those scholars who, with a most persevering industry, have endeavoured to exhibit it free from mistakes and interpolations. It appertains only to the timidity of ignorance, to suspect mischief from such undertakings:—as well may the pure grain be injured by having the chaff winnowed from it, or the golden ore by being washed from the dust and filth by which it is obscured. Assured of the stability of Christian truth, we cannot be alarmed at the progress of manly inquiry; nor can we be of opinion that the authentic parts of Scripture are of less value, because it has been discovered that there are some passages which may fairly be suspected as spurious. For the credit of criticism and of truth, these passages ought to be marked in the common editions of the N. T.; and it is one step towards supplying this desideratum, that a learned Professor in an English University has given an edition of the Gospels in the original Greek, in which he has discriminated the doubtful passages from such as are unquestionably authentic, by placing them between certain marks or symbols, designating their suspicious nature. Dr. White's impression of the *Evangelia* may be considered as a kind of abridgment of the edition of the judicious and indefatigable Griesbach, whose celebrated version of the N. T. promises to be "*cynosura sequentium editionum.*" Dr. W. has here given those readings which, according to the opinion of Griesbach, ought to make a part of the text; he has rejected, or at least stigmatized with the *obelus*, those which, on the evidence of the most antient MSS. and versions, are not intitled to admission; (such, for instance, as the story of the woman taken in adultery, John, viii. 1—11.;) and he has enabled the reader, by a clear and simple arrangement, to convince himself at one view within how narrow a compass all the

emendations, justified by the authority of MSS. and versions, are confined; and how little the numerous various readings, which have been collected, affect the essential doctrines of Scripture.

The Arabic Professor gives the following account of the edition of the Gospels before us, in which he has copied the plan of Origen's *Hexaplar:*

'*Quæ Signis adjectis indicantur, ad nuperam* GRIESBACHII *Editionem spectant, viz. Quicquid interjacet hæc Signa ÷ ⸦, vel certissime, vel saltem probabiliter, illius judicio, resecandum est de textu recepto, cum absit a plerisque Codd. MSS. Variantes Lectiones Codd. MSS. quæ, ejusdem judicio, textui recepto præferendæ, vel saltem æquiparandæ sunt, in margine apponuntur. Additamenta nonnulla (rara illa quidem) interposui, his Signis ⁜ ⸦ interjecta, quæ textui recepto e Codd. MSS. addenda esse vult idem Vir Cl. cum ipsi male in vulg. Editionibus omissa videantur.*'

The reader will observe that Dr. White does not avow his own opinion, but contents himself with citing the decision of Griesbach. Respectable, however, as such an authority is in the court of sacred criticism, we could have wished that the learned Doctor had sanctioned it by his own, and not confined himself to merely following the Jena Professor. He has taken no notice of the long passage in the *Codex Cantabrigiensis*, between the 28th and 29th verses of the xxth chapter of Matthew's Gospel.

Though there is no ostentatious display in this publication, it must have cost the editor much pains; and, convinced of its utility, we sincerely wish him encouragement in editing the whole of the New Testament in the same manner. In addition to the other merits of the work before us, it is recommended by the remarkable neatness of the type, and by the correctness with which it appears to be printed.

Prefixed to the volume is an elegant dedication to Dr. Shute Barrington, Bishop of Durham.

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ART. XI. *Picture of Palermo.* By Dr. Hager. Translated from the German, by Mrs. Mary Robinson. 12mo. pp. 159. 4s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1809.

THE title of this little book must excite peculiar interest in classical readers, who will be naturally curious concerning Sicily, an island so renowned in story during the most polished periods of the Globe; and the circumstance of the author being a man of learning, who resided two years in Palermo at the request of his Sicilian Majesty, in order to

detect a literary forgery *, must create the hope that this account would contain information more valuable and satisfactory than could be expected from the slight and cursory remarks of those who travel merely for amusement. We have already had descriptions of Sicily in general, and of particular parts of that beautiful country, from various writers. Captain Brydone mentions Palermo as the place at which he found the relaxing and oppressive effects of the *Sirocco*, or south-east wind, infinitely more violent than at Naples: yet his account of the city of Palermo is so much more favourable than this before us, that it seems to have been his most agreeable residence while he remained in the island. Sir William Hamilton's Sicilian Tour was confined to Mount Ætna. Baron Riedesel's account of Palermo, and that of Mr. Swinburne, being constituent parts only of a general description of Sicily, left much for a future writer to explore and describe in the antient capital of that state.—The anatomical parts and outline of Dr. Hager's *Picture* are probably very correct: but it wants colouring and spirit.

By having remained in Palermo longer than former descriptive travellers, the author has been enabled to give a more ample and satisfactory account of the seasons in this island, than is perhaps to be found elsewhere. Of a Sicilian winter, he speaks in the following manner:

'Towards the middle of December, the green grass spreads itself over the fields: white and yellow Mayflowers spring up on every side, delighting the eye of the passenger, and embellishing his pathway. Green *peas*, young *radishes*, as well as violets and orange-flowers, are at this season exposed for sale in the markets: *brocoli* of an extraordinary size, artichokes, and a vast variety of vegetables, may be purchased cheaply, until January, the middle of winter, arrives, which also displays in the open air fresh *roses*, *narcissus*'s, and *hyacinths*. Still ice is eaten at the coffee-houses in the evening; and the cold is not more felt with the doors and windows open than it is in Germany at the end of April.

'On the 9th of January, 1796, I walked half an hour in the gardens of the Prince of Trabia, towards *Monreale*. A lofty grove of oranges, like the golden apples of the Hesperides, encircled me and my companion, affording us a delightful prospect! beautifully contrasting the snow, the winds, and naked trees, which memory presented in our native country: we now remembered the sledges, on which many an enchanting female was half frozen, to evince the warmth of her attachment to her attendant lover; while we contem-

* The purport of this voyage was to examine the Arabic MSS. of the Abaté *Vella*, supposed to contain the history of the island under the dominion of the Saracens and Normans. See Rev. N. S. vol. xxix. p. 575.

plated

plated the *ananas* flourish better in the open air, than its companion in the green-house. We scarcely could believe that the sun was in Capricorn; and thought, with Bailly and Rudbek, that we had found the *Atlantis* in an hyperborean season, or had seen before us the Island of Tinian, which, according to the description of Anson, is replete with such a variety of beauties.

'After we had satisfied our palates, we filled our pockets with oranges; and such was the profusion, that no one called us to account for it. Now also, early in February, the *pistacio's*, *manna*, and all other trees, begin to shoot; while the *tulip*, the *clove*, and the *ranunculus* make their appearance. Ripened *almonds* are at this period offered for sale; and in the early part of March we seem to have a perfect May.'

This is such a winter as would be deemed a very delightful summer in most parts of the world. The summer, however, in Sicily, is not so benign; and the pleasures of December are balanced by the intemperance of June.

'The heat of summer at Palermo is so excessive, that after having kept it out of the rooms during the day, it is impossible to guard against it in the evening, when the sun is set: the interior heat then streams from the glowing walls so powerfully, to restore the equilibrium with the cool air, that the inhabitants are compelled to quit their houses, and hasten to the open streets, or the sea-side; where, from the end of June until the autumn, every evening the best society is to be found; where delightful music is provided at the expence of the senate; and cooling beverages, with various refreshments, are exposed for sale, in addition to the luxury of enjoying the sea-breezes.'

This learned author retains the antient prejudice concerning the bite and cure of the *Tarantula;* (p. 19.) though it has been long exploded by the experiments of men of science in Italy.

The Arabian remains in Palermo, since the Saracens were in possession of Sicily, are curious:

'The King's chapel at Palermo, which is in this palace, is still adorned with Arabic inscriptions, which cover the walls. The well-preserved azure, the variegated colours, and the gold which embellishes the interior, form a beautiful monument of Arabian art. The librarian of the Senate Angelini, before I quitted Palermo, had prepared a description of it for the press. At the entrance there is an inscription, very interesting to a Sicilian, cut in stone, in three languages; the Latin, Greek, and Arabic. From this it is clear, that in the time of Roger these languages were used, as in the days of Apuleius the Punic, Greek, and Latin tongues were spoken in Sicily. The Latin inscription says, that in the year 1142, at the command of Roger, a time-piece was made, which confirms the opinion that time-pieces (about the history of which so little is known at present) owe their invention to the Arabians. They were the people which, at that period, were not only acquainted with the arts and sciences,

but also made considerable progress in astronomy and mathematics. Before their time moveable time-pieces were not known. The first machine of this kind was that, which Charles the Great received as a present from an Arabian Prince, which, by its curious mechanism, not only marked the hours, but at every hour vibrated a musical sound, while figures on horseback came out of the windows, and when they re-entered, again closed them.

'After the time of Roger, the Sultan of Egypt sent the Emperor Frederick II. another time-piece, which not only shewed, by means of artificial wheels and weights, the hours of day and night, but also represented the motion of the sun, moon, and the other planets.'

Here we have an *Orrery* of a very early construction!—At p. 29. we have a still more extraordinary piece of intelligence concerning an *Opera* at the Court of Palermo, in the time of the Emperor Frederic IId. who died in 1250. 'Instead of the noble Hungarian life-guard, the Imperial life-guard at that time consisted of Arabians; and, just as in the present times, a Vestris or a Gardel is engaged from Paris, so the Emperor ordered an Arabian to be provided for the opera at the Court of Palermo.'

The author's account of the Sicilian and Neapolitan Nuns (Chapter on Customs, p. 33.) seems to have come from a Calvinist or Lutheran, who had obtained it by *hear-say*. He states facts which have been unnoticed before, as far as we can recollect, even by protestant travellers.

We doubt whether the author's remarks concerning the music and musical instruments of Sicily be very exact:

'The *piano forte*, which has now become so ornamental a piece of furniture all over Europe, is here also very common. I have learnt on this delightful instrument many soothing airs of Cimarosa, or Fioravante, and many a trio or duet of Andreozzi, by the side of a Sicilian enchantress. Love mingles imperceptibly with harmonious sounds, and the dulcet unison of melting tones occasions that of sentiments; for nothing can be imagined more fascinating than attractions of this species.

'Besides the piano-forte, upon which instrument there are as capital performers as there are good makers, the *guitar* is as common there as in Spain. This instrument the Sicilian girls accompany, in those graceful attitudes to which they naturally incline, with short popular Sicilian songs, the soothing or sprightly mazes of which yield not to the German in acuteness: yet the melody is not only different from ours, but from the Italian; it sounds altogether like the Asiatic style in the tone, which is called, technically, *mol*, just as I have heard it on the coast of the Thracian Bosphorus: it was, unquestionably, introduced into Sicily either by the Arabians, or the Aragonians, who kept possession of that country still longer.'

The description of the person and manners of the Sicilian women is pleasing, and we suppose accurate. Arabian antiquities

quities we may imagine to be more correctly recorded and explained by our author than by common travellers, in consequence of his knowlege of the oriental languages.

It is extraordinary that, in describing theatres, the word *Opera* is never mentioned; though all who have spoken of the musical dramas of Palermo celebrate the great singers who have performed in them. Mr. Brydone tells us that Pacchierotti began his career in that city, with Gabriele; and Dr. Burney says that the powers of Farinelli and Gizziello were there displayed.

We here find a chapter on the *amusements* of the people at Palermo: but they are so similar to those in the rest of Italy, which have been so often described in books of travels through that country, that Dr. H. might have spared himself the trouble of detailing them. The horse-races through the *corso*, or principal street, without riders, are the same at Palermo as in all the great Italian cities. The bull-feasts are disgustingly delineated, so as to be as offensive to humanity as the amusements at Vienna; where animals are not only baited and torn by dogs, but helpless domestic creatures devoured alive by beasts of prey.

Sicily is not in general in a high state of civilization: inns, roads, carriages, and accommodation, are all bad. Travellers are forced to depend on the hospitality of convents for food and lodging; as, in the chief parts of Asia, they are necessitated to apply to the benevolence of the natives.

The author has been so good as to give us a poem of some length in the Sicilian dialect of the xiith century. Many of the words of this antient composition are still pure Italian; and the difficulty in construing the rest arises from the mixture of Arabic, as in Spanish from that of Moresque words, in the diction.—Original materials for this little work seem to have fallen short: as Dr. Hager is obliged to have recourse to Brydone for a description of *la Festa di santa Rosalia*; to Constantinople for another Festival; and to Florence, and even Egypt, for embalming and mummies.

One of the best chapters contains the description of the country round Palermo; and part at least of the section on the political state of Sicily would be worth extracting, if we could allow room for it.—In the chapter on *Cheats*, Dr. H., in order to introduce the relation of his discovery of the *Abaté Vella*'s forgery, has given Cicero's narrative of a fraud practised in Sicily by *Pythius*, a banker, on *Caius Canius*, a Roman Knight. 'Palermo, in modern times, has produced many remarkable impostors. The well-known Joseph Balsamo, afterwards called Count *Cagliostro*, was a native of Palermo;'—and of this man's life we have here a sketch, previously to the account

of the detection of the *Abaté Vella*; whose forgery throws us into despair concerning the recovery of the lost books of Livy, Tacitus, Diodorus, and other antient authors, through the medium of Arabic translations. We have already noticed Dr. Hager's account of this transaction; see a preceding note, p. 68.

This little publication is interesting: but we must confess that we were somewhat disappointed, in not finding in it more information which we had not before received from other books. It is presented to the English reader in a pleasing translation, elegantly printed. D.B.

ART. XII. *A complete System of Astronomy.* By the Rev. S. Vince, A.M. F.R.S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University of Cambridge. 4to. Vol. II. pp. 600. 1l. 4s. Boards. Printed at Cambridge; and sold in London by Wingrave, &c. 1799.

SINCE our notice of the first volume of this work*, several philosophical foreign publications have arrived, and have delayed our attention to this completion of Prof. Vince's design. By no means negligent of the claims of our countrymen, our conduct has been regulated by the rules of civility: we have regarded these foreign books in the light of strangers, "as strangers we have bade them welcome," and have honored them with precedency.

The 31st chapter of the Professor's system, the 1st of the present volume, treats '*on the general Doctrine of centripetal Forces.*' In his mode of demonstration, the author has followed Newton by adhering to the synthetical method. Of the first section of the *Principia*, no use (except by reference) is made: but the principal propositions of the second, concerning the equal descriptions of areas, the expressions for forces, for velocity, &c. are introduced; and these propositions are afterward applied, as Newton has applied them, to the case of a body moving in an ellipse round the focus. The other parts of the second and third sections, which do not relate to the motion of a body urged by a force varying in the inverse square of the distance, are properly omitted.

In article 821, Mr. Vince uses arguments similar to those which Newton has adopted in the seventh section, when he deduces the circumstances of a body's motion in a right line from its motion in a curve. The velocity (V), says Mr. Vince, $= v \times \frac{\sqrt{HP}}{\sqrt{AC}}$; and, 'as the reasoning holds true up to the

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* See M. Rev. vol. xxvii. N.S. p. 121.

limit,

'limit, it must be true in the limit.'—This is not satisfactory; in the first place, it is no very evident and strict consequence, that what is nearly accurate before we arrive at the limit should be exactly so at the limit: in the second place, a right line does not seem a proper, or if we may use the expression, a natural limit to an ellipse: for, diminish the *latus rectum* what we please, the curve at the extremity of the *axis major* never nearly coincides with part of the axis. The conclusion drawn by Newton and Mr. V. we know to be true, but it does not seem to follow strictly from the premises*.

In finding the motions of the apsides, Mr. Vince has not entirely followed Newton in his 9th section: for he proves that the force in the orbit in fixed space is equal to $\frac{F^2}{A^2}+\frac{RG^2-RF^2}{A^3}$, by aid of the centrifugal force. We believe that a method somewhat similar to that of Prof. Vince is given in the notes to a book containing parts of the *Principia*, published by Dr. Jebb.

To prove one of Newton's important discoveries, viz. that, when the force varies inversely as the square of the distance, spheres attract in the same manner as if all their matter were collected in their centres, Mr. Vince abandons the method which Newton uses in the 12th section, and substitutes the 90th proposition of the 13th, and a fluxionary computation.

Respecting the motion of a body disturbed by extraneous forces, the author has followed Newton in his 11th section, with the exception of some variations; and he has explained, as

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* We are averse from an appeal to authority in matters of abstract science; and we do not quote the following opinion of D'Alembert because it is D'Alembert's, but because it is reasonable and just: "*J'avouerai à cette occasion que je n'ai jamais été satisfait de la manière dont M. Newton envisage, dans le Section 7. liv. 1. Prin. le mouvement rectiligne d'un corps qui tend vers un centre; surtout dans l'hypothèse d'une force en raison inverse du quarré des distances. Il réprésente ce mouvement par celui du même corps dans une section conique, dont un des axes seroit=o, ce qui ne me paroit nullement exact. Car si ce dernier mouvement pouvoit réprésenter le mouvement rectiligne, supposons la force proportionelle à* $\frac{1}{x^2}$; *le foyer et le sommet de la section conique, reduite (hyp.) à une ligne droite, se confondroient avec le centre de tendance; et comme le corps, qui décrit une section conique, après avoir descendu vers le foyer, s'en éloigne ensuite en rémontant; de même dans l'hypothèse de M. Newton, le corps arrivé au centre devroit rémonter au lieu de passer outre, comme il y passe evidemment; on ne peut donc regarder avec M. Newton le mouvement du corps dont il s'agit, comme s'il se faisoit dans une section conique réduite à une ligne droite par l'anéantissement d'un de ses axes.*"

that

that great author has done, the precession of the equinoxes, and the tides.

Chapter 32. *On the Theory of the Moon.*—Newton, after the discovery of the law of universal gravitation, applied his theory to the several phænomena of the universe, to the precession of the equinoxes, to the tides, and to the inequalities in the moon's motion. His labours on these subjects, although with certain considerations meriting the highest admiration, are not to be accounted complete and satisfactory. The imperfect state of analysis did not enable him to solve what is known by the problem of the three bodies; which was determined by Euler in his *Theoria motus Lunæ, exhibens omnes ejus Inequalitates*, 1753; and afterward more fully in his *Theoria motuum Lunæ*, 1772; by Clairaut in his *Mémoire sur la Theorie de la Lune*, Petersburg, 1752; and by D'Alembert in his *Récherches sur differens points importans du système du monde*, 1754, and in his *Opuscules*.

From the solution of the problem of the three bodies, the great confirmation of Newton's system was expected: but Euler, D'Alembert, and Clairaut, who solved it nearly about the same time, agreed in making the motion of the lunar perigee one half less than observations gave it. Clairaut immediately proposed, instead of the law of the inverse square, to substitute another composed of two parts, one varying in the inverse square of the distance, the other increasing in a greater ratio: but he speedily acknowleged his error, on finding that, by carrying on the approximation farther, the law of gravity, such as Newton had assigned it to be, gave the motion of the lunar perigee exactly conformable to observations. This important fact was soon confirmed by Euler * and D'Alembert, and has been established by all succeeding mathematicians.

To determine the inequalities of the moon's motion, it is necessary to consider the mutual action and motions of the sun, the earth, and the moon; and herein consists the problem of the three bodies, the complete solution of which baffles all the powers of analysis. From the near distance of the moon to the earth, and the smallness of her mass, an approximate solution may be obtained.

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* Euler, in express terms, gives the whole glory of this discovery to Clairaut: "—*gloria hujus insignis inventi cum industriæ tum candori excellentissimi Clairalti debetur; qui primus egregium hunc theoriæ consensum cum veritate detexit et publice professus est; cui ea re eo majores debemus gratias, quod sine ejus studio summo, quod in hâc investigatione consumpsit, Theoria Newtoniana fortasse vix unquam ab hâc suspicione insufficientiæ esset liberata.*"

Of

Of the theories of the moon given by foreign mathematicians, Mr. Vince has followed that of Frisi *; influenced by the same motives which induced that author to adopt a synthetical mode of demonstration. 'Although (says the Professor) the conclusions thus deduced (viz. by the indirect method of Frisi) are not always so accurate as those derived from a direct solution of the problem, yet they give the true arguments, and their coefficients to a very considerable degree of accuracy. This method of treating the subject has this advantage, that it points out more clearly the particular causes of the several equations so deduced, which are not obvious in the equations derived from the general solution.'

The moon's theory is treated under the following heads:

'On the Radius Vector of the Moon's Orbit, and the Equation of its Centre.

'On the Effect of increasing or diminishing, by a very small quantity, the Force or Velocity of a Body moving in an Ellipse about the Focus.

'On the Alteration of the Figure of the Moon's Orbit, supposed to have no Excentricity; and the Variation of the Moon.

'To find the Equation of the mean Motion of the Moon arising from the different Distances of the Earth from the Sun.

'To find the Equation arising from the Inclination of the Orbit to the Ecliptic.

'To find the Alteration of the Periodic Time of the Moon, by the disturbing Forces.

'On the Motion of the Moon's Apogee, and the Variation of the Excentricity of its Orbit.

'On the Equation which depends upon the Place of the Apogee of the Moon in respect to the Sun.

'To correct the Equation of the Centre of the Moon.

'To correct the Equation of the Variation of the Moon.

'To correct the Equation of the Erection of the Moon.

'On the Equations of the horizontal Parallax of the Moon.

'On the Motion of the Nodes of the Moon's Orbit.

'To find the Equations of the mean Motion of the Nodes.

'On the Variation of the Inclination of the Moon's Orbit.

'To find the Equations of the Variation of the Inclination of the Lunar Orbit.

'To reduce the place of the Moon in its Orbit, to the Ecliptic.

'On the true Place and Motion of the Moon's Apogee.'

Chap. 33. *On the Figure of the Earth.*—To ascertain the figure of the earth, many laborious calculations have been undertaken, and many hazardous voyages performed: much truth

* "*Præstabit Newtoni exemplo approximationes hujusmodi quæ fert ipsa problematis natura, initio assumere; atque ita triplicis Integrationis Seriem, difficultatemque declinare.*"—Frisi *de Gravitate universali corporum.*

has

has indeed been established, but much still requires to be known. The figure of the earth was supposed by some of the antient mathematicians to be spherical; Newton, however, remarking that a spherical body with a rotatory motion must swell in its parts at and near the equator, concluded that the figure of the earth was an ellipsoid: he therefore assumed it such, without demonstration; and with this assumption, and the hypothesis of the earth's homogeneity, he deduced the ratio of its diameters.

By an admirable method, Maclaurin shewed that Newton was right when he assumed a spheroidal form for an homogeneous fluid mass, having a rotarory motion; and from his method it follows that, if the ellipsoid be not much flattened, the *ellipticity* equals five fourths of the ratio of the centrifugal force to the gravity at the equator.

The idea of the homogeneity of the earth, however, demanded inquiry. It appeared natural that the density should increase from the surface to the centre; and it is necessary for the stability of the equilibrium of the seas, that their density should be less than the mean density of the earth: otherwise, the waters, raised by winds and by the action of the moon, might inundate the continents. Observation likewise shews that the earth is not homogeneous; for, supposing it to be homogeneous, the increase of gravity at the pole ought to be $.00435 \times G$ (G gravity at equator): but, by observations on the pendulum, the increase is $.00567 \times G$;—consequently the earth is *not* homogeneous.

The homogeneity of the earth being excluded by observation, Clairaut, in a treatise on the figure of our planet, demonstrated that the equilibrium was still possible, on the hypothesis that the surface of the earth and the interior strata of variable density were elliptical; and this work of Clairaut has been the subject of Professor Vince's principal attention. The investigation, as we have already mentioned, is of the greatest difficulty: but it has been ascertained, with sufficient exactness, that the figure of the earth is not elliptical, and that its northern and southern parts are not similar. The accurate and extensive mensurations now carried on in England will probably throw much light on this subject.

Chapter 34. *On the Precession of the Equinoxes, and the Nutation of the Earth's Axes.*—The cause of the precession of the equinoxes was assigned by Newton (sect. 11. book 1.): but, in the investigation of its effect, (prop. 39. book 3.) he fell into an error. Since his time, the problem of the precession has been solved by several mathematicians; by D'Alembert, by Frisi, by Simson, (who obtained a right conclu-

sion by a compensation of errors,) and by Landen (vol. ii. p. 51. Math. Memoirs), who distinctly pointed out the source of Newton's error. Mr. Vince proceeds immediately to the solution of the problem of the precession and nutation produced by the action of the sun; and he next shews what are the quantities of the precession, &c. effected by the action of the moon.

Chap. 35. *On the Densities, Quantities of Matter, Light, and Heat, of the Planets.*—Before the discovery of the principle of universal gravitation, nothing seemed more difficult than to determine the masses of the planets, and the spaces through which bodies at their surface fall in a given time. The theorems of Huygens and Newton on the centrifugal force, and the law of gravity established by the latter, enable us with no great trouble to ascertain the masses of those planets which have satellites revolving round them: for the gravity of the earth to the sun is to the gravity of a satellite to its planet as the mean distance (D) of the earth from the sun, divided by the square of a sidereal year (P), is to the mean radius (d) of the satellite's orbit divided by the square of its sidereal revolution (p). Again the gravity of the earth at distance (D) is to gravity at distance d : : d^2 : D^2; and, consequently, at equal distances, the gravity of the earth to the sun, and that of the satellite to its planet, are as $\frac{D^3}{P^2}$ to $\frac{d^3}{p^2}$. Hence may be determined the masses and densities of the *Georgium Sidus*, of Saturn, of Jupiter, and of the Earth. The mass of the Earth, however, may be calculated by a more exact method. The masses of those planets, (viz. Venus, Mars, Mercury,) which have not satellites, are obtained from the secular alterations which their actions produce in the elements of the solar system. Of Venus and Mars, M. La Place has calculated the masses from the secular diminution of the obliquity of the ecliptic, and from the acceleration of the moon's mean motion.

The mass of the moon may be obtained by two methods:

1st, Since the nutation of the earth's axis is entirely due to the action of the moon, and the mean precession of the equinoxes is due to the joint action of the sun and moon; it is clear that the ratio of the moon's action to that of the sun may be obtained from observing the quantities of these two phænomena; and hence the ratio of the masses for the moon's effect on the motion of the earth's axis is proportional to her mass, divided by the cube of her distance from the earth.

2dly, Since the tides, when the sun and moon are in quadratures, arise from the difference of the action of those two bodies; and, when the sun and moon are in syzygies, from

their joint action; by observing the height of the tides, the ratio of the sun's action to that of the moon may be deduced *.

M. La Place thinks that the latter method of ascertaining the ratio of the masses of the sun and moon is more accurate than the former: Professor Vince has (Art. 1062. and 1038.) given a contrary opinion: but perhaps our learned author has not sufficiently attended to the great improvements which the theory of the tides has received from the French mathematician. See Memoirs of the Paris Academy, 1775, 1776, 1790.

Chapter 36. *On the Motion of the Planes of the Orbits of the Planets, from their mutual Attractions.*—The method of treating the subject of this chapter is similar to that of Frisi.

Chapter 37. *On the Effects produced on the Motions of the Planets in the Planes of their Orbits, from their mutual Attractions.*—Here the author quits his former method of demonstration, and gives the analytical solution of the problem on which the substance of this chapter depends.

Suppose P and $\mathcal{Q}$ to be two forces acting on a point m, and parallel to two rectangular co-ordinates x and y; then

$$\frac{x''}{t \cdot^2} = P$$

$$\frac{y''}{t \cdot^2} = \mathcal{Q}$$

transform the relation between x and y into a relation between a radius vector (r), and an angle (a) which r forms with x:

then $x = r \cos. a$, $y = r \sin. (a)$

$\therefore x' = r' \cos. a - ya'$

and $y' = r' \sin. a + xa'$

hence deducing the values of x'' and y'', after reduction, two equations result: viz.

$$r'' - ra'^2 = -t \cdot^2 (P \cos. a + \mathcal{Q} \sin. a)$$

$$2r' a' + ra'' = -t \cdot^2 (\mathcal{Q} \cos. a - P \sin. a).$$

In the integration of these differential equations, Mr. Vince follows Clairaut in his *Théorie de la Lune.*

In the course of this chapter, the Professor applies the deductions of its first part to the equations of the earth's motion produced by the action of Jupiter; to the equations of the equations of the earth's motion, arising from the attraction of Venus, supposing the orbit to be a circle; &c.—Here, also,

* In order to ascertain, with the greatest precision, the ratio of the actions of the sun and moon, the height of the tides at their *maximum* towards syzigies and at their *minimum* towards quadratures ought to be observed:

are

are given several methods of developing the function

$$\frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{2rr'}{r^2 + r'^2}\cos. z\right)^m}.$$

Chapter 38. *On the Tides.*—After a brief account of the several opinions concerning the tides entertained by philosophers previously to Newton, Mr. Vince proceeds to determine the figure of the earth supposed to be fluid, and the height of the tides, on the hypothesis of an equilibrium in all its parts; and he then gives the theory of tides, nearly as laid down by Daniel Bernouilli in his celebrated treatise *.

Newton, who first undertook the *problem of the tides*, supposed that at each instant the sea assumed the figure with which it would be in equilibrium under the action of the sun and moon. Maclaurin, Euler, and D. Bernouilli, adopted the same hypothesis: but, although in many respects the results of their theories are conformable to observation, it is clear that the hypothesis is inaccurate, since the rapid motion of the earth's rotation prevents the waters covering it from assuming the figure which corresponds to the equilibrium of the forces acting on them. It is not only evident *à priori* that this hypothesis is incorrect, but the results obtained from it disagree with observations, or more properly contradict them in some particular cases. Bernouilli, noticing this disagreement, has endeavoured to explain it, and assigned a reason which has evidently been shewn to be fallacious.

The three treatises on the tides, (in 1740,) by Euler, D. Bernouilli, and Maclaurin; and the three treatises on the moon, (in 1745,) by Clairaut, Euler, and D'Alembert; form memorable epochs in the history of physical Astronomy: but mathematicians must be contented with the reputation of having advanced science: they must not hope that their writings will be for ever read: for, though they may remain a monument of their genius, their sure and necessary influence is to prepare the way for other productions which are destined to efface them. The problem of the tides was not treated in the most general manner, because analysis was then inadequate to the solution of it †. The complete solution has been given by one of the greatest mathematicians of the present day: but, though the glory of his works can scarcely suffer diminution, the success of them is partly owing to the discoveries of D'Alembert, in the doctrine of the motion of fluids and of partial differences.

* See Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, and the third volume of the edition of the *Principia* by Le Seur and Jacquier.

† Although sagacity was by no means the characteristic quality of Euler's mind, yet he noticed the defect in the hypothesis on which the theory of the tides was founded.

Here

Here we arrive at the conclusion of Professor Vince's labours in physical Astronomy. The succeeding chapters treat *on the Principles of Projection, and the Construction of Geographical Maps; on the Use of Interpolations in Astronomy; and on the History of Astronomy.* This history is not very full: the latter part of it consists of a succinct biographical account of Astronomers, including a catalogue of their works. Of our great countryman, the immortal Newton, we were sorry to perceive so brief a notice. It is difficult, indeed, for words to convey an adequate idea of his merit: but it is by words that he is to be commended; and every author may use a similar excuse with Mr. V. for passing him over in silence;—or is Newton the more celebrated because the less praised, according to the principle of that fine observation of Tacitus, "That Brutus and Cassius were the more eminently conspicuous, because their statues were *not* seen among the rest?*"

Towards the close of his history, Mr. Vince with perfect propriety bestows his tribute of applause on the great living Astronomers Lalande, Herschel, and Maskelyne.

After this chapter, we are presented with an argument for the existence of a deity, a designer, a first cause, founded on the simplicity and regularity of the laws which govern the universe. This argument is drawn up clearly, neatly, and with elegance.

The remaining part of the volume, comprising 300 pages, consists of tables for facilitating Astronomical Calculations.

Such are the contents of this performance; which must be universally admitted to be eminently useful, and which, in our judgment, elevates to no mean height the reputation of its author.—Respecting Plane Astronomy, several English works are extant; but we believe that the present volume is the only treatise (of any repute) on Physical Astronomy, that has been written in our language. The Continent, also, could boast of but few complete treatises, previously to the stupendous work of La Place; that of Frisi was indeed the only one which could be styled complete; and M. Cousin's publication is little more than a collection of methods.—Of memoirs and tracts relative to physical Astronomy, we have very few that were written by English mathematicians; Stewart and Emerson published some problems with faulty demonstrations: Landen, as far as he went, was exact: Thomas Simpson was the author of several valuable essays, but he was convicted by D'Alembert of an error in his problem on the precession of the equinoxes. The memoirs and works on physical Astronomy, by foreign mathematicians, it is not so easy to enumerate; for, if Newton bequeathed to his countrymen the large inheritance of his fame,

* *Sed præfulgebant Cassius atque Brutus, eo ipso quod effigies eorum non visebantur.*

foreigners

foreigners have appropriated his precious discoveries:—we have built a tomb for his body, and they have raised monuments to his genius:—to us his reputation is as a gay ornament, to be worn for shew and ostentation; with them it is a spur that urges them in quest of fame "to live laborious days":—we embrace his doctrine with that fervent zeal with which men hold a point of faith and a tenet of religion, while they, convinced of its truth, calmly and soberly assent to it:—we believe him to be infallible, they know him to be right:—the philosophy, which seems to us inspirited by fire caught from heaven, is viewed by them as the sublimest effort of human reason:—we adore Newton almost as a god, they esteem him as the greatest of men.

Although it must be readily conceded that the present work is useful and valuable, yet we cannot speak of it as containing full and exact information on every point. Indeed, the author, with great modesty, announces that certain circumstances have abridged and limited it; and that the bounds destined to it, together with the great intricacy of the subject, prevented him from making his discussions so full as their dignity and difficulty demanded. It is, then, no just complaint that this treatise does not essentially contain every thing which has been written on physical Astronomy; and the author deserves his full measure of commendation, if, within a given compass, he has inserted as much matter as he could, with attention to perspicuity and arrangement. Perhaps he has done this: but we cannot speak decisively. The doubt in our minds relates to the method adopted by the Professor: he has followed what is commonly denominated the synthetical: a mode which has its advantages, as Mr. Vince has shewn: but then it is neither so direct nor so exact as the analytical. Perhaps we might call it insufficient * for the author in the thirty seventh chapter; and in the chapter on the tides he has abandoned it;—and thus it happens that the work is not symmetrical, not being fashioned and formed throughout after the same plan and manner of demonstration. Of the chapter on the tides we have already spoken: but we wish to add one or two more remarks. The theory of D. Bernouilli satisfactorily accounts for many of the principal phænomena of the tides, but it cannot explain all, because part of his hypothesis is faulty: still we should be justified in adhering to his system, if a better had not been

* When we say *insufficient*, it is not to be understood that the method is in its nature and essentially inadequate to the solution of problems however complicated; only that its necessary tediousness and intricacy render it extremely *incommodious*.

framed: but a better has been framed, one which is more exact in its principles, and which has been more fully confirmed by observation. His theory, then, is no longer an explication of natural phænomena; and it falls into the rank of hypotheses of pure curiosity, calculated to amuse the speculative mind, but not adapted to satisfy the philosophic inquirer, who is desirous of seeing nature interpreted.

One of the duties of critical justice consists in the detection and correction of errors: its more pleasing task is to render commendation where it is due: but, when the extent of reading, the toil of selection and arrangement, and the nicety of examination, which are requisite for the composition of a work like the present, are fairly considered and estimated, it would seem almost disgracing the author to encumber him with the common phrases and the vague generalities of praise. We hope that he will feel and experience what it is not in our power to express, the esteem and gratitude of his enlightened countrymen.

R. Wood

ART. XIII. *Sketches of the State of Manners and Opinions in the French Republic*, towards the Close of the Eighteenth Century. In a Series of Letters. By Helen Maria Williams. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 330. each. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

FEW English women, or even English men, have enjoyed a more ample opportunity of observing the varying fortunes and features,—the action and re-action,—in short, the general character, spirit, and tendency of the revolutions in France, than the lady whose letters are now before us; and though she betrays an evident partiality for the system which is introduced, and at present triumphant, she manifests knowlege and penetration in her remarks on the scenes and characters passing before her. Circumstances have occurred in that revolutionized country, and throughout the continent of Europe, which enforce the policy of weighing the probability of Miss Williams's general statements. In speaking of some facts, she may have fallen into mistakes; in exhibiting others, she may have used a too strong and too poetical colouring; and her readers must be concerned to see an English woman become so devoted an admirer of a system which seems to be so embarrassing and alarming to her own country:—yet, as there is some reason for suspecting that errors and deceptions of no small magnitude have been passed on us, respecting the temper, views, and prevailing opinions of the French nation, her account of the present state of the enemy merits a calm and patient investigation. A knowlege of the actual condition of France, perhaps, can only be obtained from a dispassionate examination of dif-

ferent narratives, and from considering the degree of credit impressed on each by the circumstances which have occurred. In some of Miss Williams's sketches, we have to object to an affectation of sentiment and sensibility, which, in letters submitted to the public eye, might have been spared. The fact seems to be, that she endeavoured to produce an entertaining book; and from a heterogeneous whole, good sense and discrimination must be employed to select the most valuable parts.

The writer's own account of the present work is, 'that the letters were written at different periods during the course of the last two years. The subjects in general relate to the events of the day, and the discussions, opinions, and sentiments to which they gave rise. These letters may therefore be considered as sketches of manners, characters, and incidents in the French republic towards the close of the eighteenth century, and in some sort as forming notes to the most stupendous page in the volume of human history.' Miss W. neither apologizes for employing her pen on political subjects, nor deigns to make a reply to those who have loaded her with the imputation of Jacobinism: but she expresses her abhorrence of the system of terror, laments the calamities which have accompanied the French revolution, (which she nevertheless terms 'a sublime effort in favour of humanity,') and concludes with hoping, 'that it will ultimately terminate in the establishment of a perfect government in the country where it originated, and the extension of liberty even to states still more despotic.'

It is not possible for us to minutely notice the miscellaneous contents of these letters; which not only detail the history of the French revolution, but that of Switzerland, and the revolution and counter-revolution at Naples, previously and subsequently to the battle of the Nile. In the latter narration, Miss W. seems to have admitted some extravagant reports, that we apprehend do not belong to true history: but we are wholly incompetent to the investigation of these points of fact; and we shall content ourselves with those parts which immediately relate to the title of the work.

In the letters intitled *Observations on the State of the French Republic*, &c. the writer remarks:

'The abolition of the law of primogeniture, by equalizing hereditary fortunes, though the most slow and silent in its operations, has become the most sure and powerful support of the Revolution.

'Every day some superannuated prejudice drops off the scene, in the form of some Count of *****, and increases the mass of happiness in the Republic, since the streams of fortune which hitherto flowed in sullen gravity through a desert country, no longer confined

to their antient channels, since the feudal dykes are levelled, now glide in numerous currents across the plain, augmenting the fertility of the soil, and the stock of national and individual enjoyments. The equal division of hereditary property, while it has added to the mass of general happiness, has little increased the number of the discontented. The young Count will scarcely regret a loss which he never felt but in perspective, and the younger children are conscious that they owe the participation of the patrimonial fortune to the Revolution, to which they become necessarily attached, since the return of the antient order of things would plunge them back into dependence, or poverty.

'Thus has the division of more than half a million of revenue brought up eight families, instead of one; but how many hundred millions in the course of a year, form similar distributions of fortune and happiness! A few years since the younger branches of these illustrious houses would have been billeted on the public fortune as priests, or placemen, and the females would have been immured in sepulchral cloisters.'——'It appears in the enumeration made thirty years since, that the number of both sexes in France, who had embraced the monastic life, amounted to more than one hundred thousand, and the inferior clergy were almost equally numerous. Is agriculture, arts, commerce, or literature, benefited by such supporters of religion, morality, and social order?'

Miss W. thus describes the state of religion:

'Although a considerable shock has been given to the prevailing religion in France by the abolition of the civil establishment, the sects which have arisen, such as the Theophilanthropists, have not, as you suppose, acquired a powerful ascendency. The great mass of the people continue their attachment to their antient belief, and as human nature is nearly the same in all ages, it will be long before the dogmas of Catholicism yield to those of a purer faith. Christianity had long spread its doctrines throughout the Roman empire before the world was quite unpaganized. The present period is certainly more favourable for instruction; but who is solicitous for too speedy a change? Better the fanatic who believes with St. Austin, because it is impossible, than the fanatic who believes not at all.

'The temporal state of the clergy in France is very different indeed. They have in general few means of support, but such as are supplied by the liberality of their respective flocks; supplies sometimes, especially in the country, equal to their wants, but far below their comforts. The state has been highly unjust and impolitic with respect to this class of men, who have not only lost all by the new order of things, but have suffered something very nearly resembling persecution.'

Miss Williams thus speaks of the French accounts of their expedition into Palestine:

'The relation of the expedition into Palestine and of the defeat of the Turks on the shores of Egypt, is not perhaps in the best stile of composition; but the facts it relates are singular and curious.

We may make allowance for Oriental phraseology, when the writer tells us "of armies destroyed numerous as the stars of heaven, and thick as the sands on the sea-shore:" but a reader of Christian antiquities will recognize names and places of very old acquaintance, among the scenes where the valor of the French has transported their military operations. At one time the hostile armies were driven from Nazareth, the birth-place of the great teacher of mankind; Mount Tabor, the scene of his transfiguration, was the ground of another victory. Cana of Galilee, where he performed his first miracle in favour of social hospitality, and which the surly Capucin remarked was not the most meritorious of his actions, was the residence of a French camp; and after routing the Turkish army at Bethulia, where Judith beheaded the inebriated chief of the Assyrians, the Republicans drove the affrighted fugitives across the plain of Jericho, into the river Jordan.

'These splendid triumphs have come in powerful aid of the decision of the government respecting the jacobin associations, and strengthened the party in the councils who contended against the motion of declaring the country in danger; no danger being half so formidable as jacobin plans of deliverance. The worst perils were dissipated by the courage of the Republican party in the changes of the 30th of Prairial, and the political sharks of the interior, who swarmed around the vessel of the state, in hopes that it would be ingulphed in the revolutionary tempest, are either taken, or have been dispersed at the approach of a calm.'

A considerable part of Vol. I. is occupied by a whimsical story, relating the adventures of a bellows-mender.

The Second Volume contains observations on the revolution of the 19th of Brumaire, when the Directory was annihilated by Bonaparte;—on the constitution;—on the state of women in the French republic;—on the state of religion;—on Atheism;—on Bonaparte's Italian expedition and return;—on the state of literature;—on the war, and on the prospect of peace.

Bonaparte is represented, in the part which he took in overturning the Directorial system, as acting under the conflict of contending sentiments:

'Can we be surprized (says Miss W.) that he felt discomposure at being compelled to the commission of an act abhorrent from its forms to every idea of freedom, but strongly necessitated by every motive for its preservation? Is it to be wondered at, that he felt with the Roman patriot, that in the interval between the motive and the execution of a dreadful thing,

> ——"The state of man,
> Like to a little kingdom, suffers then
> The nature of an insurrection,"——

and that while he was impelled to do a strange and daring deed, by the irresistible impulse of acting for the salvation of his country, his first, and most important duty, he regretted as sincerely, and as poignantly as the most enthusiastic friend of liberty, the means?

'He had withdrawn from this scene of menace and confusion, and was haranguing the troops, recounting to them the dangers which he had incurred, and the tyranny which the minority were exercising over the council, when word was brought him that the life of the President, his brother, was in imminent danger. When Buonaparte left the council, it was on the President that the rage of the violent party turned; he had attempted to speak, and had preferred a few words in justification of the General, alleging, that he ought to have been heard; that his actions had hitherto demonstrated that his attachment to liberty and the Republic was not to be suspected; that it was unjust to suppose he harboured designs sinister to the public weal, and that he had, no doubt, come to give such information as might lead to measures which would secure the preservation and welfare of the state. This harangue, which was heard only by a few members, was frequently interrupted by the clamorous exertions of the violent party, some of whom had pressed around the tribune, and were putting themselves in the attitude of attack, as they had done against the General. The President, alarmed probably at their menaces, and indignant at their reproaches, descended from the chair, threw off his toque and his robe, and with tears starting from his eyes, declared himself divested of his presidency. It was at the moment, when the clamour of those raging senators was at its climax, when pistols were presented to make him resume his robe and his seat, that the military entering once more the hall, surrounded the President, and led him away into the court of the palace.'

What a scene in an assembly of governors of a nation! Pistols presented to the President!—

After having apologized for Bonaparte, Miss W. thus speaks of the new constitution, to her correspondent in Switzerland:

'The first day some of them talked loudly of usurpation; the second day, like Lord Burleigh in Mr. Sheridan's Critic, they shook their heads and said nothing; the third day they hoped that every thing was for the best; the fourth, they believed that Buonaparte was in the right; and, in the next decade, all rallied themselves under the banners of the new administration. Meanwhile, the legislative commissions are proceeding on the business of the state; the greater part of their occupations will be cleansing the Augean stable of the state of the most obnoxious rubbish of the forty thousand laws, which the industry of succeeding legislators had created;—an Herculean task, which the commission will neither have the time nor the means of effecting, since no stream is potent enough to wash away its impurities in so short a space of time, without doing more mischief than good by its rapidity. The most salutary water that can flow for the present, is that of oblivion, on some spots over which no torrent can glide too briskly. The hostage law, which has lighted up the war in the Vendee; and the forced loan, a mode of borrowing money disliked in every part of the Republic, are on the point of being repealed.

'The exclusive patriots of your Republic, were, it seems, also about to exert their energies, and make trial of their skill in saving the

the country; but the revolution of St. Cloud has spread its beneficent effects beyond the confines of the Republic; and you are, of course, grateful for this second escape, which, unlike the last, has cost nothing. Long and melancholy experience has here taught us, and it will be a sufficient warning, without doubt, to surrounding nations, that whatever be their form of government, none can be more miserable than that which is under jacobinical sway.'

She farther adds:

'I am far from adopting the opinion of those who would persuade the French that they have escaped the rocks to fall into the whirlpool; and that they have changed their temporary state of internal discord and misery, for a perpetual confinement in the bonds of silken servitude.—France does not present the present constitution as the most perfect of all constitutions, but as the best in the actual circumstances.'

Important as the subject of religion is, we must content ourselves with transcribing the following short passages relative to it, in addition to the remarks already quoted:

'Of ecclesiastical privileges the empire is for ever overthrown; nor will its fall be regretted, if religious truth rise fairer from the ruins.'—'If religion be the first corrective of the disorders of the heart, it is the interest of every government to rank its protection among the most important of its duties.'—'Although Christianity institutes no exclusive form of government, they have discerned that it promotes that spirit of equality, which suffers us to call no man master on earth; not that levelling system, which, under pretence of destroying distinctions, degrades genius and debases virtue; but that equality which, while it teaches man his rights, instructs him better in his duties, and becomes the firmest guarantee of the new commandment left by the Saviour of the world, and which has hitherto unhappily retained its novelty,—that we should love one another.'

We must not exclude the succeeding observations on the charge of Atheism, so often brought against the French of the present period:

'Atheism, properly distinguished, has perhaps as few advocates in France as in any other country in Europe; for the rejection of those vulgar conceptions, which have led man to form the Divinity after his own image, ought not to be called by this name; and the number I believe to be very limited indeed, who do not acknowlege the principle of Supreme Intelligence in the mechanism of the universe, though they may not give it form or substance, or admit from deduction its moral attributes.

'With respect to revealed religion the case is different. Few men, who call themselves philosophers, are believers; not because they are philosophers, but because they have never studied the question, or have thought it unworthy of their study. In the established dogmas of the Roman Catholic faith they have beheld things which they deem absurd or unintelligible, and reject all further examination. The genuine doctrines of Christianity, and those of the church, are

so inseparably connected in their minds, that they do not perceive the distinction, and wonder that any should be made.

'In the higher classes of society, sentiments of honour, and a regard to the decencies of life, may fill the void of more fixed and determined principles; but the short interregnum of jacobin impiety produced many ill effects on the people, who were ignorant of any purer system of faith. The persecution of the Catholic Religion under the late Directory did not fail, from the same causes, to augment the evil. Since the establishment of a more wise and tolerating government, the people have returned to the observance of religious duties: and if their minds be little illumined, their conduct is become more methodized and regular: better an erroneous faith, than no faith at all.'

Two letters are devoted to spirited animadversions on Sir Francis D'Ivernois's work "*On the Causes of the Usurpation*" &c. of which our readers had some account in the Appendix to our 33d vol. p. 495.

It appears, on the whole, that Miss Williams has been solicitous of collecting whatever she thought would instruct or interest her readers; and for this purpose she has not only observed characters and manners, but has abridged books: since her letter on the Italian expedition, and on the battle of Marengo, is compiled from the pamphlet of M. Petit; (see our Review for February last, p. 191;) and her letter intitled *Egyptian Monuments* is composed from Ripaud's "Report of the Commission of Arts on the Antiquities of Upper Egypt," noticed by us in M. Rev. for November 1800, p. 299.

ART. XIV. *An Argument for the Christian Religion*, drawn from the Character of the Founders. Translated from the French of J. Vernet. 8vo. pp. 117. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1800.

DR. VERNET'S treatise on the truth of the Christian religion is well known, and held in just estimation *; and the present selection from the fifth volume, published in 1745, contains very judicious remarks, which deserve particular attention from all who are inclined to reject Christianity.—Those who first announce a divine revelation, it is here observed, should be *above all suspicion.* Five qualifications are mentioned as reasonably to be expected for our perfect security concerning a messenger from God; which we shall enumerate, as being the ground-work of this performance:

'1st. A messenger from God should announce himself as such, and should afford *authentic proofs* of his commission. 2d. The life, the discourses, the writings of such persons must bear a character of *reason and good sense*, which does not allow of their being confounded

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxviii. p. 591.

with

with *visionaries.* 3d. An essential quality must be *probity*, clear unequivocal probity. 4th. We should be less distrustful of men *without talents and without credit*, than of *men of the world*, or men of ability and eloquence, sufficient to form and enforce systems of their own. 5th. We shall, perhaps, have a further wish, *not to read* in their history, that they have *attained worldly honours*, or *lived in ease and affluence.*—With these *five conditions*, I do not see that we can desire more The three first are the only ones which are absolutely necessary; the two others are added to make assurance more sure, and carry precaution as far as it will go.'

Such are the outlines of this publication; and it appears to us that the subjects are afterward discussed in a calm, candid, and satisfactory manner, calculated to produce the conviction and obtain the assent of any unprejudiced mind.—A specimen of the author's reasoning will be found in the following passage:

'I desire the reader to recollect what has been before observed, concerning the different degrees of fanaticism; for there may be a certain warmth of imagination, inclining one too hastily to entertain some fantastic opinions, and yet very distant from delirium, and believing in extravagant visions. Such, however, is the excess we must attribute to the apostles, if what they have believed had no reality. For to *imagine*, for years, that we have been witnessing daily, a hundred uncommon and extraordinary things, which have passed before our eyes, and which were perfectly within our knowledge; things *palpable*, and *which we had leisure to examine;* things so striking, and so easy to discern, as the resurrection of a person well known; and the ascension of this person into heaven; in the open air—in the open day—on a rising ground—and we close by; to *imagine* not only that we have seen this person work divers miracles, but that we have ourselves performed many; to imagine, I say, that all this has really happened, when it has not happened, and that many persons at the same time should have the same chimæras, would indeed be a folly so extraordinary as to go beyond all example—and if it were possible that many heads should be so deranged, the rest of their conduct would soon discover it, and all their actions and discourse must necessarily expose their insanity.—But so far from there being any thing like this in the conduct and discourses of the apostles, the fact is, that we should have a difficulty in discovering the smallest trace of fanaticism.'

We cannot refrain from adverting briefly to a note inserted by the translator, in the 36th page of the work:—it had been justly remarked, concerning the discourses of Christ, that, 'his language is natural; familiar, without being low; noble, without being inflated; of a serious simplicity; and such precisely as the nature of the subject requires.'—'When it is not so, (says the note,) as seems to be the case in the 53d and four following verses of the sixth chapter of St. John's gospel, is it not to be charged to the *writer*, who in this and such instances has

has proved an *earthen vessel?*'—This phraseology may be, perhaps, a kind of *key* for discovering the translator:—but surely the remark is unnecessary, and rather ill-timed. It is well known that the Jewish people were not unaccustomed to hear religious and moral instruction represented by bread or food, which, when properly used, contributes to the support and nourishment of those who receive it; and some explication of this figurative language, or assistance for understanding it, is afforded in the 63d verse of the same chapter.—Numerous, we know, are the difficulties and objections which may be and have been made, and which have also been well answered, lessened, or removed: but this is not the place in which we might expect to have seen them produced, as in the instance above, and also in page 52.—The original work acknowleges, (page 51,) particularly respecting the Epistles, that there are passages which require explanation: but these are matters of separate investigation, and do not affect the authenticity of the books, the truth of the history, nor the validity and importance of its instructions; which form the great object of the pamphlet before us.

Though the translation of this tract appears to be executed with attention, the language sometimes bears too evident marks of the original. The word *verbiage*, page 35, is not English; and the term *humanity* is also used, particularly at pp. 116, 117, in a sense somewhat differing from its common acceptation. The quotations from the New Testament occasionally vary from the common English version: in a passage taken from the second epistle to the Corinthians, we here read, *All this comes from God;*—whereas our translation says, *All things are of God:* which, in our opinion, seems best to correspond with the original Greek. **Hi.**

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1801.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 15. *A Comparative Statement of the Food produced from Arable and Grass Land,* and the Returns arising from each; with Observations on the late Inclosures, and the probable Effect of a General Act for inclosing Commons or Wastes, Heaths, &c, Together with other Matters. By the Rev. Luke Heslop, Archdeacon of Bucks. 4to. 2s. Reynolds. 1801.

In extreme eagerness to apply a remedy to existing evils, we speculate very superficially on the cause of them, and often subsitute report and popular notions in the room of information. This has been the case during the present scarcity; and few men have been sufficiently judicious

judicious and dispassionate, to detect the glaring errors which have floated on the stream of public opinion. Mr. Heslop, however, is one of those discerning few, and has more than intimated that "our very wish" respecting inclosures is not likely "to give us our wish." He has exposed a singular inconsistency in the Report of the Committee of Waste Lands, which states an extraordinary and rapid increase of inclosures to have taken place, from the period at which we ceased to be an exporting and began to be an importing country, and then recommends a general inclosing system as an effectual cure of the evil! It is evident that the increase of inclosures has not augmented the quantity of grain. Mr. H. asserts that the inclosure of lands *now under the plough* would tend to diminish the growth of wheat, and we are inclined to think that he is correct; for we cannot suppose that the inclosure of the Isle of Thanet, or the open parts of Cambridgeshire, for instance, would improve them as corn-growing countries. All that is wanting, in most places, is a power of mutual exchange, for the sake of uniting property which is now separated and scattered throughout the arable fields.

Mr. H. mentions a curious fact relative to inclosures, which ought to arrest the public attention. He remarks that, 'in matters of high importance, to proceed upon experience rather than speculation, is true wisdom. And from a review of this district (the parts of Buckinghamshire below the Chiltern hills) and of those favourable to grass, to which my observations have extended, it appears, that in several parishes which have been *long inclosed*, an acre of arable land is not to be found;—in others, the quantity is extremely small;—and not sufficient in any, I apprehend, to supply seed and food for the inhabitants,—though the quantity of arable land, prior to the inclosures, might be estimated, on the average, at about two thirds of the whole open fields.'

Mr. Heslop is of opinion that inclosures operate as a temptation to farmers to avoid the endless toils and expences of tillage, and to convert their arable land into pasture. Open fields are certainly preferable for the growth of corn; and if it be the wish of the legislature to make this a corn country, Mr. H.'s hints and quæries as to the operation of a General Inclosure Act will not be disregarded. Moo-y.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 16. *Nuptiæ Sacræ*, or an Inquiry into the Scriptural Doctrine of Marriage and Divorce. Addressed to the Two Houses of Parliament. 8vo. pp. 136. 3s. 6d. Wright.

This author informs the august bodies which he addresses, that he is a married clergyman; and his performance does honor to that character, as well by the learning which it displays, as by the temper which it breathes. We are gratified to find the judgment of so able and respectable a person wholly coinciding with our own. The refutation of Bishop Horsley's interpretation of the text in St. Matthew occupies the most considerable part of this tract; and it is shewn to be contrary to the opinions of the fathers, and of the most approved modern commentators, as well as inconsistent with all the rules of sacred criticism:—but, while the error of the Bishop is most satisfac-

satisfactorily exposed, abundant justice is done to his talents and attainments.

We admire the spirit and good sense of the following passages:—on a former occasion, we attempted to convey similar sentiments:

'There is one maxim on which I must dwell with all earnestness. Whatever correction you apply to the evil, let it be but just sufficient for the purpose required; and, while you seek to repress offence, leave every possible opening to returning virtue. If the punishment goes beyond the necessity; if, in the violence of reform, terror is heaped upon terror, against the offenders, (for morals too have their excesses, and virtue, sometimes, riots,) it is easy to see the consequence. Society will grow universally depraved under a law superfluously rigorous. "Offences will come," and the passions will be more destructive in another direction. Terrified, at first, with thundering statutes, we shall learn to shelter ourselves from them under forced covers of our own invention. Every man, by degrees, will unguard the virtue of his house, hitherto sacred; and, through a corrupt agreement which will soon come to be generally understood, the husband will accommodate his neighbour, and be silently accommodated in return. Sad state of morals! where Justice is completely disarmed by private compact, and a dreadful stillness is spread over universal guilt!'—

'I have endeavoured to find a substitute for that provision of the late Bill, the disinclination to which occasioned the failure of the whole measure. I speak of the prohibition of intermarriage to the adulterous parties. That disinclination still continues; and, I am persuaded, it is of too strong a nature to be immediately surmounted.'

The reasons which induced the author to commit his thoughts to paper are so creditable to him, that we shall beg leave to state them in his own words:

'If it should be inquired, what is the motive which has prompted me to step forward on this occasion? I will more fully avow it.—Next to the zeal (which is habitual and supreme with me,) for the right interpretation of Scripture, and the universal establishment of its authority, has been the desire I have felt of vindicating the honour of Parliament. Yes, my Lords and Gentlemen, the honour of Parliament. It is proper you should, at length, be acquainted with an opinion which has been maliciously propagated, that your late decision on this business was made with a wilful contempt of the Divine command. That opinion chiefly rests on the authority of the learned Prelate, whose doctrine of the perpetual adultery, inherent in those marriages, the prohibition of which you refused to sanction, has been adduced, to prove that your conduct was careless, because your principles were Antichristian! It is sufficient, perhaps, that Parliament should suffer from the standing malignity of its enemies: must it be assaulted through the unguarded side of its friends too?—It is sufficient, that revolutionary rage should be ever at hand to pervert your views, however patriotic, to calumniate your legislation, however beneficial. Must you be branded with the additional charge of profaneness? And shall no attempt be made to repel so new a calumny? No: it was impossible to allow, with impunity, another

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nilet to defamation. It was impossible to be easy, while, with a sanctimonious concern for your character, and an affected anxiety for your welfare, you were represented as opposers of the voice of God, as well as enemies of the happiness of man; equally regardless of our domestic virtue, and our public peace. I could enlarge upon this; but there are many reasons for not proceeding farther. I have done what appeared to be not foreign from my duty, and am content. I only wish it were possible for me to remove the perverse impression, which the late discussion has occasioned, by any means more effectual than the circulation of this treatise.' Jo.

Art. 17. *A seasonable Caution against the Abominations of the Church of Rome.* By the Rev. C. De Coetlogon, M.A. 12mo. 2d. Williams.

The spirit of Antichrist has appeared under different forms, but popery is justly regarded as its most prominent and distinguished figure; and this, it is well known, is so adverse to the natural rights and reasonable comforts of man, that it must be wise to adopt calm and temperate measures against its intrusions.—As to the little tract before us, we shall quote a few lines from the introduction; which is the best written part, perhaps, of the whole:

'What effect the favours which have been shewn by the clemency of our Government may produce from the members of the Romish church, I cannot presume to foretel: it is safe, however, to fear the worst, that we may be armed against it; and it is already evident, from matters of fact, that the youth of this nation, especially of the poorer sort, are in danger of being educated in the horrid principles of the church of Rome; thousands having been invited, and many received into popish seminaries in several parts of Great Britain.—The following caveat, which is prepared for the use of the *commonalty*, is not however designed to attack *persons*, of any denomination, but *things;* it is the fort of error which we mean to storm; error, in its nature fatal to the civil and religious liberties of Englishmen, and, which is infinitely more important, to their immortal souls.'

The design of this small pamphlet is good, and its tendency is useful: but it might have been more acceptable and suitable, had there been in it less of Calvinism and methodism; which are not weapons calculated for the attack and demolition of popery. Hi.

Art. 18. *Village Sermons;* or plain and short Discourses on the principal Doctrines of the Gospel, intended for the Use of Families, Sunday-Shools, or Companies assembled for Religious Instruction in Country Villages. By George Burder. 4 Vols. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Chapman. 1800.

The first three of these volumes have passed through several editions; each of them contains twelve sermons, but the fourth includes sixteen, by which arrangement a sermon is provided for every Sunday in the year. Their immediate intention is expressed in the title; and, as the design appears to be benevolent, we heartily wish that they may be successful in advancing that noblest of all purposes, the cause of Christian piety, charity, and general virtue. They have

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the advantage of being short, plain, affectionate, and earnest: but some objections occur to us.

Of one sermon, we observe it remarked that it is chiefly borrowed from two which had been preached at Oxford by the late Rev. W. Romaine; of others, we apprehend, it may be said that they are much in the manner of several of the old divines. Some, perhaps, we might peruse with but little objection, as particularly that concerning the *rich man* and *Lazarus*: at other times, we might point out passages which appear to be uncandid: they are presented to the public under the idea of being practical; they certainly are also *doctrinal*. It is remarkable that those writers and preachers, who are warm and positive in assuring men that they can *do nothing*, are most eager and earnest in persuading them to *do something*, and indeed *a great deal*.

One principle, perhaps in a little alliance with popery, pervades these volumes, viz. that what is here asserted is *the truth*, and that there is none other; and apparently a scheme or system is laid down which the Scriptures are to support, and by which they are to be explained.—However, we are willing to hope that these village sermons and village excursions, under wise and proper conduct, may contribute to private and public utility. Hi.

LAW.

Art. 19. *A short View of the Catholic Question*, in a Letter to a Counsellor at Law in Dublin. By the Hon. Henry Augustus Dillon, M. P. 8vo. pp. 50. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1801.

This gentleman is decidedly of opinion that it is not incompatible with the coronation oath, to grant the proposed relief to the Irish catholics; and he argues that the immunities, with which they have been favoured in the present reign, should be followed up and rendered completely efficacious by a repeal of all the disabling statutes. Mr. D. writes with a spirit of candour and conciliation, but his style is declamatory. S.R.

Art. 20. *A further Supplement* (occasioned by the Second Edition of Mr. Reeves's "Considerations on the Coronation Oath") *to a Pamphlet intitled*, "The Question as to the Admission of Catholics to Parliament considered on the Principles of existing Laws." By John Joseph Dillon, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 50. 1s. 6d. Booker, &c. 1801.

The pamphlet, to which this publication is intended as a supplement, was noticed in terms of commendation in our Review for March.—Mr. Dillon considers the objections urged by Mr. Reeves, both in a legal and in an historical point of view; and he argues satisfactorily, that the latter clause of the coronation oath could not, even if we were ignorant of the discussion which took place in parliament on passing the act, be construed as binding the Sovereign in his *legislative* capacity, whatever restrictions it might intend with respect to the *executive*; in which latter capacity, all those mischiefs were meditated by James, which it was the object of the Revolution in future to prevent.

This supplement is distinguished by the same moderation, candour, and good-sense, which mark the author's former production. D.

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Art. 21. *General Opinions on the Conduct of Ministers*, with Respect to the past and present State of Ireland, and inculcating the Justice and Policy of Catholic Emancipation. By Thomas Townshend, Esq. Barrister at Law, and a Member of the Irish Parliament. 8vo. pp. 80. 3s. Debrett. 1801.

Mr. Townshend considers this subject rather in a political than in a legal point of view. He is of opinion that the late administration uniformly adopted harsh and inexpedient measures with respect to Ireland; and he observes, speaking of the union, that 'whatever merits it may internally possess, those merits did not suit with the exigencies to which they were addressed; that, of several modes of carrying it into effect, the ministry took the very worst which the most culpable ingenuity could discover; and that, in preferring this, the worst of all means of accomplishing the Union, they have established a precedent so perilous to the constitution, that a day should not be lost until a vote of parliament declared the annihilation of that precedent, and that it shall never be brought into example hereafter. And inadaptable as the measure has been, and unwise and unprincipled as the progress of it has been pressed, yet, in order that any effectual good may hereafter arise out of it, it is meant to inculcate, as strong as necessity, that all its good must depend on the tranquillity of Ireland, and that tranquillity on the most immediate restoration of all the Catholic rights and privileges, and the adoption of a mild and lenient system, discountenancing intolerance, and abolishing for ever the artificial springs which have kept religious discord in activity.'

We have remarked considerable proofs of intelligence and information in this production; though it appears to us that the author is not unfrequently precipitate in his conclusions, and by turns obscure and declamatory in his style. S.R.

Art. 22. *The Case of Conscience solved;* or Catholic Emancipation proved to be compatible with the Coronation Oath, in a Letter from a Casuist in the Country to his Friend in Town. With a Supplement in Answer to Considerations on the said Oath, by John Reeves, Esq. 8vo. pp. 90. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1801.

It is impossible not to approve the delicacy of conduct which his Majesty has shewn on this most important question; though we may be of opinion that his apprehensions are ideal, and that the difficulty, which is surmised, exists only in his conscience. A proposed measure may be incompatible with the coronation oath; or, though in no degree militating with it, it may by an individual be supposed to be in direct opposition to its nature. We conceive the latter to be the case in the present instance; and the author of this well-written and sensible pamphlet has confirmed us in these sentiments. He has evidently considered the question with great and due attention; and he supports his opinion, that the proposed measure of catholic emancipation is not in opposition to the coronation oath, both by historical and by theological evidence. We are also presented with a curious and interesting statement of the several oaths, by which our sovereigns were bound at the different periods of our history;

history; and this writer shews, in a satisfactory manner, that the oath introduced at the time of the Revolution, and which has been continued ever since, does not restrain the prince in matters of religious concern, in a greater degree than the oaths which preceded it. The tolerating measures, which were adopted by King William and George the First, plainly prove this point.—We have perused this publication with pleasure, and recommend it to the attention of our readers. S.R.

Art. 23. *Principles of the Bankrupt Law.* By Archibald Cullen, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law, and a Commissioner of Bankrupts. 8vo. pp. 490. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

We have examined this performance with considerable attention, both because the subject is in itself sufficiently interesting, and because the decisions on it are numerous, and not always easily reconcileable. Where a trader acts *bonâ fide* towards his creditors, we are happy that the rigour of the common law is mitigated by the provisions of several statutes relative to bankrupts; and we can perceive adequate and satisfactory reasons, why the benefits of these positive regulations should not be extended to persons not employed in merchandice, or buying and selling.

'Bankruptcy and insolvency, (observes Mr. Cullen,) though sometimes confounded, are things perfectly distinct in law. One who is insolvent may never become a bankrupt, or be capable of becoming so; and a bankrupt may finally prove to be solvent. The term Bankrupt is appropriated exclusively to traders, and to such traders only as come within certain specific descriptions, contained in the several statutes of bankrupt, by which the word itself was first adopted and applied in our law.'

This work is divided into five books; in the first of which the author considers the persons who may be bankrupt; in the second, he treats of those acts which make a person a bankrupt; in the third, he discusses the commission, and the proceedings under it; in the fourth, he gives an account of suits and other proceedings at law and in equity; and the concluding book enters into the consideration of commissions against partners.—In each of these divisions of his subject, Mr. Cullen brings in review before him all those questions which arise out of them; and he discusses, with much ability, topics of considerable importance. He writes with brevity and distinctness, omitting nothing that is material, and introducing nothing that is either trifling or erroneous. His information appears, in the course of the work, to be accurate and extensive; and his judgment is not less conspicuous, in drawing the proper inferences from cases in which it is not easy to arrive at a right conclusion. The volume will be found highly serviceable, and we recommend it with perfect confidence both to the mercantile and to the professional man. S.R.

EDUCATION.

Art. 24. *Aphorisms on Education:* Selected from the Works of the most celebrated English, French, and Latin Writers on that Subject: and intended as a Vade-Mecum for Parents, Guardians, Preceptors,

Preceptors, Governesses, &c. In Three Parts. I. As relating chiefly to the Male Sex. II. With particular Reference to the Female Sex. III. Remarks of general Application to both. Small 8vo. 3s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

Pithy sentences of wisdom may so far be of value, as they tend to forcibly impress the mind, and are easily retained by the memory. Concise reasoning and truth, so exhibited as to arrest attention, like an axiom, will ever be acceptable and beneficial to the mass of mankind; though they are not to be considered as precluding the discussions of the wise, and though they should first receive the *imprimatur* of Experience. The multitude have not time to go to the bottom of the well after Truth; to them she must be made of easy access; and her *dicta* must be promulgated with all possible brevity. Wise men in all ages have seen the utility of aphorisms, and we are obliged to them for the quantity of good sense which they have often compressed in very few words. Perhaps there is no subject concerning which the public stand more in need of a few judicious and forcible maxims of conduct, than that of education; which, after all that has been written on it, remains but imperfectly understood. Solomon's aphorism, *Train up a child, &c.* declares the infinite importance of early tuition; and we ought to regard every thing which contributes to the formation of a perfect man, as included in the term education. It is indeed a word of greater import than it is commonly supposed to be; which must be evident if we consider its object, and the great variety of opinions and observations respecting it. In the little volume before us, are collected the remarks of some celebrated writers, of Locke, Rollin, Fenelon, La Bruyere, Rousseau, Madame de Genlis, Chesterfield, Edgeworth, &c. and the whole forms a manual which, we should think, all who are intrusted with the care of children would wish to peruse. The aphorisms, with an exception or two, are judicious. We extract a few as specimens:

'To be master of a child, it is necessary to be master of one's self.—J. J. Rousseau.'

'The most infallible way to make your child miserable, is to accustom him to obtain every thing he desires.—J. J. Rousseau.'

'To increase the vigour of the mind, we ought to increase the strength of the muscles.—J. J. Rousseau.'

'He that will have his son have respect for him and his orders, must himself have great reverence for his son: he must do nothing before him which he would not have him imitate.—Locke.'

'If you do not give your pupil strength of mind to conquer himself, every thing else that you teach him will be useless.—Madame de Genlis.'

'He that at any rate procures his child a good mind, well principled, tempered to virtue and usefulness, and adorned with civility and good breeding, makes a better purchase for him, than if he laid out the money for an addition of more earth to his acres.—Locke.'

'Mothers ought to be sensible how greatly incumbent it is upon them to instruct their daughters early in every thing relating to the interior government of a house, and to expences for clothes, equi-

pages and furniture, for the education and bringing up of children, and for the management and sustenance of the servants.—Rollin.'

'Hinder your children, as much as may be, from being cunning, which has always a broad mixture of falsehood in it.—Locke.'

'Severity is seldom necessary in a well-conducted education.—Edgeworth.'

'Civility is what in the first place should with great care be made habitual to children and young people.—Locke.'

These are a few out of a series of useful maxims on the subject of instruction, which, for the benefit of the rising generation, cannot be too widely diffused. They may answer the purpose better than a formal treatise, and may occasionally stimulate parents and preceptors to a more faithful discharge of their duty.

Art. 25. *The Latin Scholar's Guide*, or Clarke's and Turner's Exercises corrected; together with References to the Originals from which the Sentences are extracted: by Mr. Tocquot, Author of the Royal Pocket English and French Dictionary. 8vo. pp. 459. 10s. 6d. stitched. Dulau. 1800.

Clarke's Exercises have been pretty well known to school-boys; and Mr. Tocquot appears to have rendered a considerable improvement to that work, by discovering the authors from whom the extracts are made, and referring the reader to the place in which distinct passages may be found. We have, indeed, accidentally observed both omissions and additions in some paragraphs which Mr. Clarke selected, yet not such as are injurious. It may, perhaps, prove agreeable and useful to the young scholar, as he has opportunity, and when he has performed his exercise, to search out the originals, and become more acquainted with the connection and design of the abrupt sentences which have engaged his thought. It must, however, have cost the present editor some labour to have afforded the assistance here given: if *a few* passages still remain without reference, considerable exertion must have been used in ascertaining the different authors, as is here said, of more than *two thousand others*. Very exact attention to figures and numbers is requisite for this purpose, and we presume that this has been allotted: yet the slight notice which we could give, pointed out two or three instances in which, there appeared to be some mistake; as particularly, we observed two extracts from the same book and chapter of Justin having different references; one appears in page 29, No. 17, the direction for which is, *Justin*, l. 6. c. 6; the other, p. 139, No. 17, and is marked, *Justin*, l. 12. c. 6.;—this last is right, and the former may have been an error of the press, or an oversight of the writer: but such things require notice, especially in a work of this kind.—Justin, Livy, Cornelius Nepos, and Quintus Curtius, furnish the principal quotations, though Cicero, Cæsar, Suetonius, Sallust, &c. also appear occasionally.—The volume consists of three parts: Clarke's Exercises; Clarke's Supplement; and Turner's Exercises; which last convey much moral instruction in short sentences. The Supplement was intended to illustrate, in a great measure, the difference between the Latin and English idiom, particularly respecting moods

and

and tenses; the immediate words, to which the rules laid down relate, are here distinguished in *Italics*, and to this it may be useful for the scholar to pay a careful regard.—Concerning this *Supplement*, we have farther to observe that a new edition also appears, separate from the larger volume, pp. 176, price 3s. 6d. stitched. It exhibits the words in *Italics*, but differs greatly from the former in the Latin; which is here all designedly false, and consequently affords an opportunity to the scholar to improve himself by restoring it in a grammatical and classical manner. Hi.

Art. 26. *The School-Room Party, out of School-Hours;* a little Work, that will be found, for young Ladies and Gentlemen, of every Description, a most pleasing Companion to the Leverian Museum. Small 12mo. 9d. Hurst. 1800.

Improving amusement for children, and not beneath the attention of older readers who may chance to find it in their pockets when visiting that valuable collection of natural curiosities, the Leverian Museum, on the South side of Black Friars' Bridge:—originally founded by our old and respected friend, the late Sir Ashton Lever.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 27. *The Speech of the Honourable Charles James Fox,* on the Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Nation, on the 25th of March, 1801. To which is added an Appendix, illustrating some Passages in the Speech, and contributing to the Means of forming a full Judgment upon the most momentous Questions that agitate the Public in the present Crisis. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

The speech of this able and eloquent statesman, on Mr. Grey's Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Nation, excited, as it merited, general attention; and it is here printed, we believe, with singular accuracy. Moo-y.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Hon. Spencer Percival,* Solicitor-General to his Majesty, in Consequence of the Notice given by him, in the last Session of Parliament, that he would in the Present bring forward a Bill for the Punishment of the Crime of Adultery. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This is a very forcible and eloquent philippic against the crime of adultery. The author is the advocate of the prohibitory clause; and against those who do not agree with him he deals out his censures with no unsparing hand. The style of this pamphlet shews the scholar, and the ends at which it aims bespeak the Christian: but the temper which pervades it indicates strong affinity to the Tabernacle. If, fearless of his anathemas, we question his judgment, we yet cordially applaud his design, and commend his zeal. Jo.

Art. 29. *Thoughts on the Frequency of Divorces in modern Times;* and on the Necessity of legislative Exertion to prevent their increasing Prevalence. By Adam Sibbit, M. A. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Cadell and Co. 1800.

The cause of domestic happiness and public security is here pleaded with virtuous intentions, and in glowing language. If we share in

the fears expressed by Mr. Sibbit and others, that the regard for religion and for virtue in general is on the decline among us, it must be admitted that talents and attainments were never more entirely on their side, never exerted with more ability and zeal in their support. Valuable observations occur in these pages, on the causes of the degeneracy which we all lament; among which, great stress is laid on the manners, studies, pursuits, and dress of our females. Perhaps, however, our corruptions owe their introduction, and their prevalence, principally to the conduct of our own sex.

Like many who have signalized their zeal on this subject, Mr. Sibbit adopts the opinion that corrupt manners are to be reformed by pains and penalties: but, indebted to him as we feel ourselves for the service which he has rendered to virtue, we cannot altogether coincide with him in that sentiment. Mere legislation will effect no great change in manners: which can only be produced, in any great degree, by the example of those who stand in commanding situations.

In the handsome tribute which the author pays to the present Lord Chief Justice, he will have the concurrence of all who are acquainted with the conduct of that noble and distinguished person. Jo.

Art. 30. *Report of the State and Progress of the Institution for the Relief of the Poor of the City of London and Parts adjacent*, situate in New-Street, and Friar-Street, Blackfriars; with a List of the Subscribers. 8vo. 1s. Phillips, Lombard-Street.

After the *doubts* which we have occasionally expressed, respecting the true wisdom and policy of such institutions as that to which this Report refers, we shall not be expected warmly to recommend the universal adoption of them. We are, however, most willing to bestow all due praise on the generosity and public spirit of the gentlemen, who have superintended and contributed to the support of the plan for the relief of the poor, which is detailed in this pamphlet. We have here the elevation, ground plan, &c. of the house which has been appropriated to the purpose of a public kitchen, receipts for preparing the soup and rice which have been distributed to the poor of the metropolis, and the regulations adopted by the Association. From the statements here given, it appears that the total quantity of soup delivered in 94 days was 120,416 quarts, and that the cost of the ingredients with a few other charges was 1462l. 13s. *i. e.* nearly three-pence *per* quart; so that, as it was sold to the poor for 1d. *per* quart, the loss to the committee was $\frac{2}{3}$.

Rice prepared with lard, ground allspice, salt, and water, was afterward sold at one half-penny *per* quart. 24,734 quarts of this diet were distributed at an expence to the Association of 125l. 6s. 2d.

Potatoes and *pickled herrings* were also sold: the former at $\frac{1}{2}$ *per* pound, the latter at one farthing each. The money sunk by the sale of these articles was 396l. 13. 4d.

To the praise of the Phœnix Fire-office Company, they generously insured the premises to the amount of 1200l. for the nominal premium of 5s. *per* annum; and the New River Company gratuitously supplied the Public Kitchen with water. Moo.

Art.

Art. 31. *Thoughts on Parliamentary Reform*, and on Reform in general: in which the Nature of the British Constitution, the Government, its component Parts, and Establishments, &c. &c. are freely but briefly considered. By an Ex-member of the present Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

A writer of thoughts on so unfashionable a subject as *reform* must be contented with few readers, and fewer admirers. No dexterity, sprightliness, and originality, not even his avowal of strong Toryism, will secure him from suspicion and obloquy; the cloven-foot of Jacobinism will be thought to lurk under the mildest expressions; and every proposed amendment will be said to mean subversion and anarchy. What, then, could induce this Ex-member of Parliament to exhibit himself in the odious character of *The Reformer?* Let it not, however, be supposed that he is either a republican or a leveller. In his chapter of *likes* and *dislikes*, he thus draws his political portrait:

'First, then, I like Monarchy above all forms of government; I like the English the best of all monarchical forms: and I like the English Monarch better than any I have ever read or heard of—God bless him! But I dislike that the expences of Government should have no reference to the public burden; I dislike profusion in national establishments, when there is a general necessity for œconomy in private expenditure; and I equally dislike shabby reform. I dislike destroying small places, and distressing poor families; but I should like, when all are suffering, that large sinecures, large salaries, where there is but little to do, and overgrown emoluments, should cease, or at least be regulated.

'I like, above all things, the aristocratic part of the British Constitution; I like it as an incentive and as a reward to virtuous actions; I like it as a political and as a moral institution, but I dislike its rapid increase; I dislike that the least infringement should be made on this feudal, dignified, and valuable establishment; I dislike to see its avenues opening to borough influence and to commerce; and I dislike to see the old families living so little with their tenantry.

'I like the representative system, as the constitution wills it to be; I like that the body of the people should send to the National Council, freely and uncorruptedly, such of their neighbours (having strong local connections and a great national stake) as may appear to them most worthy the trust; but I dislike to see the House of Commons filled with merchants and tradesmen. I dislike to see corporations returning on usurped privilege; and I dislike to see persons sitting in Parliament for places they have never been near, and by purchases made without ever leaving their 'compting-houses.

'I like (generally speaking) the fairness, the justice, and the equality, of the Laws; I like, beyond expression, the inflexible honour and integrity of the judges, their wisdom, their attention, their humanity: but I dislike that the expences of law should be such, that no person of small fortune can seek justice, without his ruin being as certain as his success.

'I like to see property protected, but I dislike to see the unfortunate oppressed. I like credit, as a national concern, very well,

but I like liberty better; I like that property should be answerable for property, but I dislike that, for a credit voluntarily given, the debtor should be confined for life.

'In all these points I should like a Reform; but I should like that Reform to originate with the Executive Power, and to be effected by the wisdom of the Legislative. I should dislike to see it ever effected in any other way, and I should like the existing Government to be always so strong, as to destroy every idea of opposing it by force.

'I should like to throw out any hint that wisdom and power may turn to use; and I conclude this chapter of Likes and Dislikes with observing, that I like butter very much, but in this time of scarcity (or at least dearness) of corn, I dislike to see many thousand acres of land in my neighbourhood, which would produce six quarters of wheat per acre, furnishing little or nothing towards the necessaries of life.

'For particular reasons I like to assume the signature of SEVEN.'*

The writer begins his plan with recommending economy in the household; he then discusses the subjects of sinecures, patent places, pensions, and public grants—proposes a new office—describes what a Peer of Parliament should be—gives hints for a history of the House of Commons, in which such an anecdote of the present state of representation is introduced as we venture not to copy—proposes remedies against the usurpation of the elective franchise, by corporations, or parts of corporations, and against bribery, and the looseness of qualifications in the elected—glances at the law's delay and expence—and concludes with reprobating imprisonment for debt; benevolently observing that, 'if his power kept pace with his wishes, there would not be so many of his fellow-creatures unhappy.'

We perceive, from the author's manner, that he is not very sanguine in his expectations of having his reforming projects realized.

Moo

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *The Works of the late John Maclaurin*, Esq. of Dreghorn, one of the Senators of the College of Justice, and F. R. S. Ed. 8vo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Bell and Bradfute, Edinb. Robinsons, London.

These volumes contain the miscellaneous effusions of the son of the celebrated mathematician Colin Maclaurin, who, after the decease of Newton, for a while upheld the fame of England against the astonishing efforts of the foreign mathematicians. Some friend of Mr. John Maclaurin (and, if we judge from the character of him given in the prefixed account of his life, he must have had many friends) has deemed the poetry, essays, &c. contained in this publication, worthy of being saved from oblivion. Undoubtedly, many worse compositions have been laid before the world; which is the common excuse for publishing works of whatever merit: but,

"*Stulta est clementia, cùm tot ubique*
Vatibus occurras, perituræ parcere chartæ." JUV.

* Is this the anagram of the author's name?

The

The first volume contains poetical essays, written chiefly on trifling occasions, without any great melody of numbers, strength of sentiment, or splendor of imagery. They are such as the author considered probably as *jeux d'esprit*, not possessing either interest or excellence enough for the public, but rather calculated to enliven a circle of friends; who, not being morose critics, might be disposed to extract entertainment from small sources.—Let it not, however, be understood that the poetry is contemptible: but its character is that of mediocrity; and mediocre poets, we know,

"Nor Gods, nor men, nor columns will endure."

Good poetry we seldom find: but good prose is less rare; and Mr. Maclaurin appears in the second volume to greater advantage than in the first. Yet we cannot characterize him as either a very lively or a very profound prose writer; though he occasionally exhibits learning and acuteness, and always an ardent love for the liberties of mankind. Some of his political opinions, however, and particularly those which bear reference to the French Revolution, will probably not meet with general approbation and concurrence; and the learned senator himself might perhaps have somewhat altered his views, if he had lived to the present time. His paper on the vote of judges is shrewdly written; and the humorous argument against putting separate questions deserves to be repeated.

'I have heard a very ingenious and humorous argument stated against putting separate questions. Four men (it was said) having met to drink a bowl of punch; after the first glass, one of them objected that it was too sweet, but on a vote it carried three to one that it was not; another maintained it was too sour, but that objection was over-ruled by the same majority; the objection of a third, that it was too strong, shared the same fate; as did that of the fourth, that it was too weak. Thus it carried upon separate questions that the punch was liable to no objection, yet none of the company would drink it; and, had the question been put in general, is the punch good or bad? It would have been declared bad with unanimity.'

The last essay, to prove that Troy was not taken by the Greeks, is a very moderate performance. R. Wood.—

Art. 33. *The Miscellaneous Works of Bishop Atterbury.* With Historical Notes by John Nichols. 8vo. 5 Vols. 1 l. 15 s. Boards. Nichols.

We have had occasion to notice the progress of this work, from the publication of the first two volumes of the Bishop's Correspondence *, to the separate appearance of the third † and fourth ‡ volumes. The whole are now republished, newly arranged, and with the addition of a fifth volume; which is introduced by a biographical sketch of the author, containing many curious particulars relating to his private and political transactions. It happens, however, in this as in most other cases, that the accumulation of private

* M. R. vol. lxix. p. 4. † M. R. vol. lxxi. p. 41. ‡ M. R. vol. lxxvii. p. 355.

papers is rather a source of perplexity than of pleasure to the general reader. It would be much better to follow the plan of the French Memoir-writers; that is, to extract every thing interesting from the mass of correspondence, and to form it into a narrative: adding the original papers as *proofs*.

We must bestow the praise of industry and perseverance on Mr. Nichols: but we apprehend that he has now collected much more respecting this turbulent character, than readers in general will wish to know. The literary talents of Atterbury, which were over-rated by party-violence, could alone be objects of inquiry at present; and concerning them we meet with little worth remarking in these volumes. Fer.

Art. 34. *A New System of Short-Hand*, by which more may be written in one Hour, than in an Hour and a Half by any other System hitherto published; which is here fully demonstrated by a fair Comparison with one of the best Systems extant; with a Short and easy Method by which any Person may determine, even before he learns this System, whether it will enable him to follow a Speaker. By Samuel Richardson. 8vo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Vernor and Hood.

When the contest is for brevity, he must feel the proudest who is found to be the shortest among the short. To this merit, Mr. Richardson's system aspires; and to prove that it does not arrogate to itself a superiority to which it has no claim, a comparison is made with the systems of Byrom, Palmer, Gurney, and Mavor. Our many engagements will not allow us sufficient time to study and discuss this new system, so as to pronounce on its merits and defects: but, from a view of its construction, it appears peculiarly calculated for dispatch. The following is a part of Mr. R.'s reply to the question, *can we* follow a speaker?

'In the specimens, there are about 940 words written with about 1199 simple dots, commas, and lines. From hence it is easy to calculate, that we are bound to make no more than *four* of these simple marks, in the time occupied by a speaker in pronouncing *three* words. And seeing that many of the said words consist of *two*, *three* or *more* syllables, every one of which requires a distinct motion of the organs of speech, it is plain that the speaker must move his tongue quicker than we do our fingers, or else we shall be obliged to wait for him.'

In obtaining these advantages, the stenographist must have paper ruled according to Mr. R.'s directions; and we are informed, at the end of the work, where paper may be had either bound or in sheets, adapted to this new system. Mony

Art. 35. *Cary's New Guide for ascertaining Hackney Coach Fares and Porterage Rates:* being an actual and minute Admeasurement of every Street which is a Carriage-way throughout the Metropolis: shewing not only the whole Length of each Street, but also the Distance between each Coach-turning leading out of the same, and thereby affording the Means of ascertaining, with the greatest Precision, the Length of any Route, however indirect,

throughout

throughout the Whole of the Survey; which, for farther Accommodation, is extended to Hampstead, Highgate, Islington, Highbury, Hornsey-House, Stoke-Newington, Hoxton, Hackney, Walworth, Newington-Butts, Lambeth, Vauxhall, Brompton, Kensington, Paddington, &c. &c. To which are also added, Abstracts of the Hackney-Coach and Porterage Acts: a copious Index, containing the Whole of the Streets described, their relative Situations, Lengths, and Reference to the Pages where each may be found; List of Coach Stands; and ruled Leaves for minuting Distances. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Cary. 1801.

This extremely comprehensive and analytical title-page sufficiently points out the utility of the work; and Mr. Cary's known talents and accuracy are pledges for the proper execution of the design. A very neat new plan of London, Westminster, and Southwark, may be had to accompany the *Guide*, price 1s. 6d. G. 2.

Art. 36. *The World in Miniature;* containing a curious and faithful Account of the Situation, Extent, Climate, Productions, &c. &c. of the different Countries of the World, compiled from the best Authorities; with proper References to the most essential Rules of the French Language, prefixed to the Work, and the Translation of the difficult Words and idiomatical Expressions. By Nicholas Hamel, Rector of the Town of L'Aigle, Author of a French Grammar, and several other School Books. 12mo. pp. 251. 3s. 6d. Bound. Hurst. 1800.

This work, we are told, 'has been undertaken rather to promote the easy acquirement of French and geography, than to present to the world specimens of fine writing.' The essential rules of syntax, by which it is introduced, appear to contain useful remarks and directions; and we observe throughout the volume references to these rules, together with French words and phrases at the foot of every page, admonishing the reader how to express himself in that language. The writer appears to be well acquainted with *Guthrie*'s geographical work: but we rather wonder that he should have chosen to cast his compilation into an alphabetical form, which seems to deprive youth of part of the instruction which they ought to receive on the subject, and is also likely to occasion some repetitions. One instance, respecting the camel, may be observed on comparing the 28th page with the 145th. Though, however, the attentive reader may discern some defects in this volume, we consider it as a pretty and compendious account of the different countries of our globe; intended, as the author says, 'not only to remind the pupil of the most essential rules of the French grammar, and lead him progressively through the greatest difficulties of the language, but at the same time to introduce him to a knowlege of geography, a science, allowed to be one of the most useful, especially to the inhabitants of a commercial country.' Hi.

POETRY, *&c.*

Art. 37. *Out at last!* or, The fallen Minister. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. West and Hughes. 1801.

It was not to be imagined that this writer would see the "G/—of his idolatry" descend from the lofty height of ministerial power, on which

which he had so long stood pre-eminent above the admiring multitude, without bestowing on him one affectionate adieu at parting.—Accordingly, Peter has here given the fallen Phaeton a *striking* farewell compliment, in proof of his friendly regard and *fond* remembrance.—As to the *manner* in which *the courtly* Bard usually expresses his feelings on subjects of so delicate a nature, his charaeteristic peculiarities are too well known to require any specimen on the present occasion.

Art. 38. *Odes to Ins and Outs.* By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. West and Co. 1801.

"More Pitt!"—but the Ex-Minister comes not alone: he is here accompanied by several quondam friends. We have first, an ode addressed, with due respect, to *The King:* in the conclusion of which the Bard embraces the happy opportunity of tendering his dutiful services to his Majesty, should the office of Poet Laureat become vacant.—Then, seizing his old blunt pen of Court-Satire, he most unceremoniously be-odes Lord H—k—y, *Mister* Addington, George Rose, Esq.; PITT again, *and again*; and not forgetting Mr. Henry Dundas.—Several little Tales, &c. are introduced, with no ill effect, with regard to the general character and humour of these compositions.—One of these Episodical parts may be here transcribed, for the purpose of enabling our readers to judge of the present state of the poetic powers of this veteran satirist:

'A fellow troubled with the itch
(Like Courtier-men) of getting rich,
And learning that a Doctor, (not a *Quack*,)
By means of a most potent pill,
Did verily and truly fill
Full many a time with gold his sack—
Resolv'd, by pill, to make a fortune too,
So set about it without more ado.
Hoist but the standard, folks will come,
With heads as empty as the *drum*.
The Quack puffs off his pill—none doubt him,
And numbers quickly flock'd about him:
A BUMPKIN came among the rest,
And thus the Man of Pill addrest:
"*Zur*, hearing what is come to pass,
That your fine pill hath cur'd the KING,
And able to do every thing,
D'ye think, *Zur*, that t'will make me vind my Ass?
I've lost my ass, *Zur*, zo should like to try it:
If this be your opinion, *Zur*, I'll buy it."
"Undoubtedly," the Quack replied,
"Yes, MASTER HOB, it should be tried:"
Then down HOB's gullet, cure or kill,
The grand Impostor push'd the pill.
HOB paid his fee, and off he went;
And trav'lling on about an hour,

His bowels sore with pains were rent;
Such was the pill's *surprising* pow'r.

No longer able to contain,
HOB, in a hurry, left the lane:
How decent!—what can decency surpass?
And sought the grove—where HOB's two eyes,
Wide staring, saw with huge surprise
His long-ear'd servant JACK, his Ass!
Ye Gods! how happy was the meeting!
HOB kissing Jack, and Jack HOB greeting.

"Adzooks! a lucky pill! 'quoth HOB:
Yes, yes, the pill hath done the job."
PILL grew the subject of the village tattle:
At last it gain'd a heap of fame;
Not only good for *blind* and *lame*,
But good, too, for recovering all *stray'd cattle*.

'*Now ponder well, ye Parents dear*—
PITT's no *Catholicon*, I fear!
PITT is a violent *cathartic*,
Creating very grievous gripes
(In butcher phrase) among our *tripes*,
Making the stomach, head, and heart sick:

'Producing much evacuation
Unto a poor consumptive NATION,
That wants *restoratives* called *Pounds*,
To give her strength, and heal her wounds.

'Though *clever* in his Treasury *rostrum*,
PITT never yet possess'd a *nostrum*
For bringing *all stray'd Millions* back again:
The Guineas he sent out, we find,
Were like so many beetles, blind,
Rambling the Lord knows where, like show'rs of rain,
Making the German regions smile,
Instead of ALBION's famish'd Isle.'

Art. 39. *Unio, sive Lamentatio Hibernica, Poema Macaronico-Latinum.* And an Ode to Peter Pindar. 4to. 1s. Wright, &c. 1801.

We should congratulate ourselves on the appearance of every specimen of Macaronic poetry, if it always answered the *jocular* definition here given of it—'*A happy mixture:*'* but there is little entertainment in the mere hotch-potch of languages; and unless the wit be prominent, and the satire well pointed, the Latinization of English words affords no very happy method '*dullum killere tempus.*' There is some humour in the descriptive parts of this poem: but they re-

* '*Meâ quidem sententiâ, (modestè tamen et humiliter, forsan et stulte loquar) Verbum hoc Macaronicum derivatum est ex Græco* Μακαρων—*quasi* felicium *rerum conjunctio*, or, *happy mixture.*'

semble

semble lanes which lead nowhere. The author (*hibernicè*) has concluded his poem without ending it.—His Lamentation on the Union, however, is so far a happy mixture, that it is truly laughable; though the simile will not be relished by the lovers of *Old Black-Strap.*

'Qualis ubi vini Mercator, vel *Manufactor*
Uno conglomerans *pipo* vaccinia miscet,
Bacciferas fruges, *Brandeyum, Portugal* et *Stum*,
Sloe juice cum *rotten-eggs*, *raw beef*, acidumque *cyderum*,
Mixturamque vocat *Port-Wine*; quo *freely* recepto,
Gripatur stomachus, furit in præcordia virus,
Pes titubat, *droopat* caput, et vox faucibus hæret,
Potor * et ipse cadit, folium ceu mense Novembris.
Haud secus Anglorum primus Regisque Minister
Imperio Britonum miscet, magnoque Senatu
Omnigenos homines, omnique ex parte coactos,
Trans mare, trans *Tweedum*; quos ultima *Cambria* parcè
Nutrivit—sterilis quos *Scotia* vomit, et—*O fie!*
Erin †, *Erin*, βογοτροττα, βρογεσφρα, και βρογοφωνη ‡,
Te tua progenies, gremio nutrita paterno,
Deseruit, vili penitus te vendidit auro.
Hos grege commiscens unâ, *like a drover of wild geese*,
Whiggos cum *Toriis*, *Privy-Counsellors* et *Borough-mongers*,
Bribibus et titulis emptos, vi denique facto,
Insuper his addit *Spinam*, *Shamroga*, *Rosamque*,
Mixturamque vocat, quam falso nomine dictam,
UNION—O nobis caput horum et causa malorum!'

The little Ode to Peter Pindar shews that, as a *mannerist*, he is easily imitated, and in nothing so easily as in violations of delicacy and decorum.

Art. 40. *Lachrymæ Hibernicæ*, or the Genius of Erin's Complaint, a Ballad; with a prefatory Address to the Right Hon. the Earl of Hardwicke, the reported Vice-roy Elect of Ireland; and a Pair of Epigrams. By Laurence Halloran, D. D. 4to. 1s. 6d. Jordan.

Dr. H. is a zealous patriotic Hibernian; in other words, a violent disapprover of the *Union*.—Of the grounds of his *particular* quarrel with Lord H. we remain ignorant, even after an attentive perusal of this indignant (we might say *indecent*) effusion of his resentment against that nobleman: whom he charges with cruelty, injustice, oppression, breach of his engagements, &c. &c. He promises a full and speedy detail of all these allegations, authenticated with the requisite vouchers of letters, papers, &c. In the mean time, to amuse our impatience

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* "Falls as the leaves do, and dies in October." English Ballad.

† 'O quam Homerice dictum.
Αρες, Αρες, βροτοολοιγε, &c. Iliad. ε.

‡ 'Bo[illegible]tiotting, Brogue-wearing, Brogue-speaking.'

for those documents, he entertains us with a poem, of no inconsiderable merit in point of composition, in which poor Ireland bewails most pathetically the loss of her independence, &c.

" Where—where is the spirit of liberty fled,
Display'd by your fathers of old;
When at *Derry* and *Boyne* for that freedom they bled,
Which now, by your *fears* or by *avarice* led,
You barter for safety, or gold?"

Art. 41. *The Vernal Walk:* a Poem. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co. 1801.

Most poets have written on the Spring, and those who have little claim to that title have followed their example. They have invoked the Sun, the Moon, and the Planets, to assist them, and have made all the Seasons dance either to rhime or to blank verse. Love is sure not to be forgotten in a Spring-poem; and indeed the flower-generating season must excite *la belle passion*. The present poetical ambulator, who has the merit of surveying Nature with an eye of taste, soon meets Love in his vernal walk. Scarcely has he finished his opening address to the Sun, whom he hails as the

' —— noblest likeness of the Deity;'

when he hastens to seek his chosen friend *Ianthe*, with whom he wishes to contemplate the beauties of rural scenery in the vernal season.—Spring is thus apostrophized:

' O Spring, delightful season! rosy health
Salutes thy reign rejoicing, and along
Thy painted meads, with lightly-bounding step,
Dance love and sportive pleasure. ——— '

After a well-delineated picture of Winter, though not equal to the shorter Address to Deity, p. 32, we are interested in the overwhelming sorrows of *Damon* for the loss of his *Matilda;* who is said to have been as fair

' As nature in the robes of early spring.'

The next pair of lovers, however, are more fortunate:

' Many a time,
When morn, first waking, heard, or pensive eve
In silence listen'd to their whisper'd talk,
Along thy pebbly banks, telling the tale
Of love, have CLIO and LUCINDA stol'n,
Thy valley streamlet is their fav'rite haunt;
And where yon ancient beeches, garlanded
With twining woodbines, o'er the verdant turf
Extend the sylvan twilight, I behold
The happy lovers. Oft th' impassion'd youth
Bends o'er the blushing maid in fondest love,
And clasps her to his bosom: then they look

Unutterable

Unutterable things, and sigh away
Their souls in tenderness.'

Though this poem is far from being faultless, it manifests a mind capable of feeling and of boldly sketching the beauties of nature; as will be evident from the following painting:

'Behold yon mountain! Hoary son of time!
King of the landscape! in gigantic state
Superior, frowning on this vale, he tow'rs
Majestic, vast, and horrid. In his clefts
The humble floweret blooms, and with its sweets
Perfumes the ALPINE breezes: stunteed trees
Pine on his crags, and round his gloomy sides
Roll the blue clouds of heav'n. His rugged head
Is crown'd with hills of snow, which winter plac'd
When there he sat enthron'd, and gave his storms
Commission to destroy the trembling world,
Which, like a mighty map, immensely wide
Spreads far around below. Down his dark sides
Loud thundering torrents roll, and on the plains
Uniting, form a powerful stream, which flows
Magnificent, where yon meandering woods
Betray it's hidden course.
Let us ascend
Yon mighty mountain. What, tho' rude the way,
Tho' steep th' ascent? Thence on the astonish'd view,
Unbounded prospects, rivers, hills, plains, woods,
At once will burst immense! and there the mind,
In contemplation lost, may think of HIM,
Whose potent goodness form'd the boundless scene
Of nature, universal, infinite!'

The address to the Deity, with which the poem concludes, is truly sublime.

If this pamphlet should arrive at another edition, which it probably will, we would request the author to revise it with care; and to consider the propriety of such epithets as '*illuminative* lake,' '*wandering* hedge,' 'army shade,' '*uncreated* light,' 'a youth *the morn of joy*,' &c.

Art. 42. *The Vale of Trent*; a Poem. 12mo. 2s. Hurst. 1801.

The perusal of this juvenile production (as it appears to be) naturally reminds us of Pope's WINDSOR FOREST; of which the inimitable Bard himself modestly speaks as a work in which "Pure *description* held the place of sense."—Without setting the two poems on a level, we may say the same of the present performance: but, in making this remark, we would not discourage the young writer from any farther attempt to mount the heights of Parnassus. More years, more mature observation, reflection, and science, may enable him to explore the superior walks of poetic adventure. He has an ear for

for harmonious versification; which is the first requisite for entering the temple of the Muses.

The Vale of *Trent* appears to be the author's *natale solum;* a circumstance which has evidently inspired him with an amiable prejudice in favour of the scenes of the early pastimes of his youth; and which also, with pleasure, recalls to *our minds* the delightful banks of the Trent, in Staffordshire, &c. which we have formerly had occasion to visit.

Art. 43. *A Peep at Provincial Routs.* 4to. 1s. Wright. 1801.

This performance is chiefly to be praised for the writer's good intention in exposing the general frivolity of our Provincial *Routs;* though, after all, we do not think that the conduct of the good ladies, who usually compose these assemblies, is a very important object; and we are sorry that the author has, on this occasion, proved nothing so clearly as that he has evidently mistaken his literary talents. We cannot predict that, in *Satire,* he will ever rank with Juvenal or Horace, with Boileau, with Pope, or with Young.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 44. Delivered in the Parish Church of Merton, in the County of Surrey, before the Corps of Merton Volunteer Infantry, Oct. 26, 1800. By the Rev. James Olive, of Emanuel College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Sentiments well adapted to the occasion are neatly arranged in this discourse. The preacher is spirited without being violent, and patriotic without being uncharitable. He calls our attention to the great and consoling doctrine of the universal dominion of Divine Providence; reminds us of the singular protection which, in various trying circumstances, this country has repeatedly received; compliments us as not altogether undeserving of the prosperity which we have enjoyed; deprecates all despondency on account of the present aspect and pressure of the times; and exhorts to unanimity, fortitude, temper, and virtue:—in short, 'to act as our best principles shall direct, and to leave the rest to heaven.'—This is the sure way of finding God *our strength and deliverer*: Text, Ps. xviii. 2.

Moo-y.

Art. 45. Preached at Scarborough, Sep. 28, 1800, and published at the Request of the Bailiffs and Burgesses of the Corporation of that Town. By J. A. Busfield, A.M. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

In this orthodox discourse we find nothing remarkable, except an assertion, founded on the authority of the Abbé Barruel, that Voltaire 'died invoking the pardon and mercy of the once despised Saviour.'

The biographers of Voltaire do not record this circumstance, but give a totally opposite account. The *Vie de Voltaire, suivie d'Anecdotes qui composent sa Vie privée, par T. J. D. V.*, published in 1797*, details the conversation between the priest who forced himself on

* See Rev. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 525.

the

the philosopher on his death-bed, and adds—"*le curé se retire, et va annoncer aux prêtres de son clergé que Voltaire meurt en philosophe; qu'il meurt comme il a vécu; qu'il ne l'enterrera pas; et que s'il y est forcé par des ordres superieurs, il le fera exhumer pendant la nuit, et jeter à la voirée.*"

We have been informed that the clergy of Paris in general reprobated the ill-judged zeal of their *confrère;* and that the *curé* of St. Roch, a wise and good man, observed when speaking of Voltaire, "*que ce n'etoit point une conversion à faire, mais une conversion à escamoter, et qui eût fait honneur à l'église.*" The friends of Christianity may lament the persevering infidelity of such a man as Voltaire, but a misrepresentation of facts can be of no service to any cause.

After all, the circumstance is of no consequence in a general view. Neither Voltaire's life nor his death affects the arguments for revealed religion; and neither his perseverance in nor retractation of infidelity would have any effect on the inquiring Christian's sentiments. Mooz.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We should readily have bestowed some inquiry on the application of the epithet *golden-tressed* to the sun, in consequence of Mr. Dunster's obliging note, if we did not apprehend that Milton might have derived it as readily from his Greek reading as from any English writer. Aristophanes uses this epithet in several places; particularly in the Ορνίθες.

——— ιν' ὁ χρυσοκομᾶς
Φοιβᾶς ἀκτὰς ———

Spenser also comes very near to this expression in his eighth Canto:

"His snowy front curled with golden hairs,
Like Phœbus' face adorn'd with sunny rays."

Gawin Douglas likewise approaches it, in his beautiful description of May;

"Furth of his palice riall-ischit Phœbus,
With goldin crown, and vissage glorius,
Crisp haris, bricht as chrissolite or topas,
For quhais hew mycht nane behald his face."
Folio edit. 1710. p. 399.

We trust, therefore, that Mr. Dunster will excuse us for retaining our opinion that Sylvester has not an exclusive claim to this figure. Fer.

A letter signed M— de T—, dated from Chester, relates to a work which we have not seen.

*** The APPENDIX to the XXXIVth Vol. of the MONTHLY REVIEW, containing analyses of various important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume, is published with this Number of the Review.

Errors, p. 9, 14, 59, 72, 94, 98, 100, 105.